History Line

A NEWSLETTER OF THE FOREST SERVICE HISTORY PROGRAM

Spring 1998

Contents

3 **Editor's Remarks**

5 **History Blurbs**

8 **Feature Articles**

8 National Forests and the Organic Act of 1897 at 100 Years

20 Gifford Pinchot: Forester and Conservationist, First Chief of the Forest Service

29 Cornelia Bryce Pinchot (1881–1960)

37 The Origin of the Forest Service Badge

40 General Land Office Rangers and Early Forest Service Ranger Exams

42 Forest Service Reorganization 1908

43 Wolf Pinnacle Fire Tower—I Lived It

47 Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest Celebrates 50th Anniversary

50 Ranger Vessel Chugach Returns to Service

52 Southwestern Region Regional Office Sites through the Years

55 **Meetings, Conferences, and Symposia**

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History Line is published by the
U.S. Department of Agriculture
Forest Service.

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1680 History

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Cover Photograph: Gifford Pinchot and Theodore Roosevelt, October 1907
Photo Credit: Forest Service Collection, National Agricultural Library

Editor's Remarks

The Centennial Years

From now to 2005 the Forest Service will mark many centennials. Why are centennials important? There are many possible answers, but the following thoughts are worth remembering:

- Centennials offer a way to celebrate 100 years of doing something or being continuous for a century in a country that is itself a little over 200 years old.
- Centennials note the passage of time. They bear witness to failures and successes. They recall events and people and are the prologue to the future.

One hundred years ago, American citizens made decisions about the future of the land in our country. They chose well; the last of the remaining forested ecosystems are still in public ownership, held in trust for the American people of this generation and the many to follow. Beginning in 1891, our forebears were determined to protect forested public domain (the Forest Reserve Act). Then in 1897 amidst great controversy, Congress provided the necessary management for these national resources (the Organic Act). The present National Forest System, some 191 million acres, is testimony to the vision and commitment of a few highly dedicated people, such as Gifford Pinchot, Franklin Hough, Bernhard Fernow, and Charles S. Sargent.

The centennial of the Organic Act, which set the stage for the designation of forest reserves, was in 1997. Here are the upcoming centennials of note:

1998— Gifford Pinchot named Chief of the USDA Division of Forestry (July 1)
1998— Biltmore Forestry School established (Cradle of Forestry)
2000— Gifford Pinchot founded the Society of American Foresters
2001— Bureau of Forestry established in the Department of the Interior (March 2)
2005— Management of the forest reserves transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture
2005— Bureau of Forestry renamed the Forest Service (July 1)
2007— Forest reserves renamed national forests (March 4)

Happy (Belated) Birthday!

The Washington's Birthday Reserves celebrated their 100th birthday in 1997:

- The Bighorn
- The Bitterroot
- The Black Hills
- The Clearwater
- The Cleveland
- The Flathead
- The Kaniksu
- The Lewis and Clarke
- The Nez Perce
- The Okanogan
- The Olympic
- The Salmon
- The Snoqualmie
- The Stanislaus
- The Uinta
- The Wenatchee

After some technical difficulties, which have now been overcome, each of the national forests will be receiving from the Washington Office Lands Staff and Office of Communication a hand-calligraphied, framed replica of the proclamation that proclaimed the national forests along with our heartiest thanks for 100 years of excellence in "caring for the land and serving people."

Plans call for presenting each national forest with such a proclamation when it turns 100 years old.

Status of the *History Line*

The *History Line* is still hanging in there on a shoestring. The staff are volunteers, the articles are written by you, our readers, and the funding is in question. The Forest Service History Program was not funded for fiscal year 1997. Each *History Line* costs from $2,500 to $3,000 to publish. We are looking for creative, but legal, ways to fund future issues of the *History Line*. We'd like to hear your ideas on how this could be accomplished (other than one gigantic bake sale)! Thanks for your help and advice.

Unfinished Business—Headquarters of the Yurok Redwood Experimental Forest

The last *History Line* featured an article on the Headquarters of the Yurok Redwood Experimental Forest by Pamela Conners of the Stanislaus and Six Rivers National Forests. I mentioned to her that it must have been a beautiful building and asked her if we could get a photo of it for this *History Line*. She found a photo and here it is! ❑

Sideview of Headquarters of the Yurok Experimental Forest (mentioned in the 1996 *History Line*)

USDA Forest Service

History Blurbs

Eastern Region History to Be Published

The Eastern (R–9) Regional Office worked under a Challenge Cost-Share agreement to produce a publishable version of an existing draft history of the region that was previously prepared under contract in 1985. This publication was published in 1997. Region 9 conducted a contest through its quarterly newsletter *CONTACT*, to select the publication's title. The book is being offered for sale through the Eastern National Forests Interpretive Association. The *History Line* will announce its availability.

Mining History of Coronado National Forest Published

The lure of mineral wealth has drawn Euro-Americans to the Southwest since 1539, when Fray Marcos de Niza and Esteban pioneered a route for Francisco Vasquez de Coronado. It is fitting, then, that the Coronado National Forest, which takes its name from the early Spanish gold seeker, has compiled a volume of reports on local mining. The forest's mining resources cover a broad spectrum. Chronologically, they span the range from pre-Gadsden Purchase Spanish and Mexican mining to contemporary prospecting. In addition to gold and silver, the minerals sought include less glamorous metals such as copper, lead, zinc, and tungsten. Technologies range from simple panning to complex and dangerous smelting and cyanide treatment. Chapters include an overview of mining on the forest, a framework for research and management, and histories of a few of the more notable mining ventures.

The history is called *Tearing Up the Ground with Splendid Results: Historic Mining on the Coronado National Forest.* The authors are Mary Farrell, William B. Gillespie, James A. McDonald, Patricia M. Spoerl, and John P. Wilson. It is Report 16 in the Southwestern Region's Heritage Resource Management series. Copies are available from Forest Archaeologist, Coronado National Forest, 300 W. Congress, Tucson, AZ 85701.

Flathead National Forest Publishes Historic Overview: 1800–1996

The Flathead National Forest recently published a historic overview of their Forest. *Trails to the Past* was researched and written by Kathryn L. McKay, Columbia Falls, Montana, under a contract with the Flathead National Forest.

While the publication is termed an "overview," the document presents a wealth of information in some detail. It covers the Euro-American history of the area from early explorations through the post-World War II era. The history of the Indians of the area has been intentionally omitted, not because it isn't important, colorful, or interesting, rather because it deserves a publication of its own.

Trails to the Past chronicles the Flathead National Forest's important events within the broader context of the development of the entire region. Major themes include the fur trade, early exploration and missionaries, mining, settlement and agriculture, Forest Service administration, transportation, communications, fire, timber, homesteading, recreation, and others.

During the course of her research, McKay traveled throughout the four-State Northern Region and as far as Washington, DC, in search of references. These efforts paid off in a document that, in the words of Gary McLean, Flathead National Forest Heritage Resource Office, "is thorough, accurate, informative, and most importantly, is enjoyable reading."

Copies of *Trails to the Past* have been distributed to all Region 1 national forests, Montana universities, and local libraries. For more information, contact Gary McLean, Flathead National Forest Headquarters, 1935 Third Avenue East, Kalispell, MT 59901 (Telephone: 406–755–5401).

Book Notes

***A Well Worn Path*...Jay H. Cravens. 1994. University Editions, Inc. $14.95 ISBN: 1-56002-418-6.**

This new book about the Forest Service and the author's experiences in Vietnam enable you to share Jay Cravens' views on life's ever-changing conditions, from the woods, to South Vietnam's battlefields, to board rooms, to witness chairs in Federal courts. A professorship also enabled him to introduce thousands of tree-hugging students to both the technical and practical aspects of enjoying a successful career in any organization—natural resources or business. His book emphasizes the importance of understanding the human spirit, communications, and interpersonal skills.

Photographic Images of the Klamath National Forest in Siskiyou and Humboldt Counties: A Historical Journey. Hat Creek, CA: HiStory InK Books. 132 pages with 2 page forward.

Most pages have either one or two photos with identification. HiStory InK Books, P.O. Box 52, Hat Creek CA 96040. Cost $20.00.

Forest Service Humor: True Stories, Yarns, Anecdotes, Letters, Memos, Poems, and Cartoons. Gilbert Davies and Florice M. Frank (eds). HiStory InK Books, P.O. Box 52, Hat Creek CA 96040. Library of Congress Catalog number is 96-75239; ISBN 1-887200-01-0.

This 568-page softbound book contains over 300 probably true, but nonetheless funny, stories provided by 146 contributors covering more than 75 national forests from New Hampshire to Southern California. Available for $24.95 plus $2.50 shipping from HiStory InK. HiStory InK has previously published five other Forest Service-related books.

Smokejumpers '49: Brothers in the Sky. Authored by Starr Jenkins and published by Merritt Starr Books, P.O. Box 1165, San Luis Obispo, CA 93406; hardcover, 282 pages including 48 photo pages; $23.95 plus $3.00 shipping per book (shipping free to past and present Forest Service people—specify when and where you served).

This book represents 22 separate adventures of the two Jenkins brothers from Albuquerque during the 1949 fire season—the season of the tragic Mann Gulch fire on Montana's Helena National Forest, where 12 smokejumpers and one ground firefighter perished when overrun by the fire. Although this book includes, but does not concentrate on the Mann Gulch fire, it does describe the smokejumping and firefighting life of the late 1940's.

More new books in the "More Books" section of this *History Line.*

Video Programs: From Aviation to Timber and Training

The video library collections of Regions 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, and 10 are available on loan through a single vendor. This Forest Service video library is a free loan service designed to provide educational and informational video programs. All programs are in VHS format.

Programs may be ordered by mail, telephone, or FAX from: Forest Service Video Library; c/o Audience Planners, Inc.; 5341 Derry Avenue, Suite Q; Agoura Hills, CA 91301; phone 1-800-683-8366; FAX 818-865-1327.

There is no charge for the use of the videos. Borrowers pay the return postage. All videos in the library are available on loan to any national forest or other interested publics.

A listing of videos is available on the Forest Service's Internet homepage:

Public access to video listing is:
http://R05S001.pswfs.gov/video/
Forest Service homepage is: http://www.fs.fed.us/

The library currently contains about 150 video programs available to all audiences. Future plans

include bringing the remaining Regions into the library, plus making all internal videos available to employees through the same vendor. New videos are periodically added to the library.

The *This Old Cabin* series has recently been added to the collection. It features Forest Service historic preservation specialist Bernie Weisgerber and Keith Edge, maintenance mechanic for the National Park Service, as they repair historical cabins. The series includes the following titles:

- *This Old Cabin—Windows* (60 minutes) presents a step-by-step approach to repairing old windows at the Grant-Kohrs National Historic Site, Deer Lodge, Montana.
- *This Old Cabin—Roofs* (45 minutes) takes the viewer through the entire process of replacing a roof on a historic building at the Ninemile Ranger Station, Lolo National Forest.
- *This Old Cabin—Logs* (45 minutes). The ghost town of Garnet, Montana, is the setting for a training session on repair and replacement of logs. This program guides the viewer through the process of inspection, hewing, notching, daubing, splicing, log replacement, jacking and cribbing, and safety.
- *This Old Cabin—Masonry* (50 minutes). Masonry is the topic and Old Faithful is the setting. A master mason from the National Park Service goes through the steps required in historic preservation of masonry, including techniques for working with both bricks and stones. ❑

National Forests and the Organic Act of 1897 at 100 Years

An Interpretation by John Fedkiw

Last year marked the centennial of the Organic Act of 1897. It provided the first policy guidance for the management of the national forests (forest reserves before 1907), which totaled 38 million acres at that time. One hundred years later, in 1997, national forests comprise 192 million acres and make up almost 1/12 of the lands and waters of the United States. How well have the Organic Act's initial policy purposes and management guidance served the Nation and the national forests?

Today, we can safely say that the national forests remain resilient and responsive to management, though their ecosystems are altered—and old resource use and management challenges have given way to new ones—as the value of national forests has increased and public preferences about how they should be managed have slowly, but dramatically, changed. Taking their commercial value for market demands, their amelioratory benefits for our environment, and their amenity values for society into account—their benefits and services have never been greater than they are today. They are serving more people with greater value than ever before. Yet, today's debate about their proper use and management appears to be as intense and controversial as the national debate surrounding their creation and management a century ago, or even more so. Indeed, how well has the Organic Act served the Nation and national forest management? What have its strengths been? Its shortfalls?

Emergence of the Organic Act of 1897

The Organic Act marked the culmination of several decades of discussion and debate at the national and regional levels about the proper disposition, use, and management of forested land in the public domain. The dominant national policy during the latter half of the 19th century was disposal of public lands for use, development, and settlement. By the 1890's, large portions of the public domain had been transferred to railroads, States, and individuals. As the disposal of public land accelerated, issues and concerns arose about preserving or reserving public lands, conserving wildlife, assuring long-term timber supplies, and protecting watersheds and waterflows to ensure town and community water supplies, agricultural irrigation, and abating flood waters and drought conditions. These were discussed and debated in the face of strong tradition and pressure from settlers, developers, and land exploiters advocating easy access to the public lands—for their minerals and agricultural cultivation and free use of their range forage, timber resources, and other materials. Professional foresters and others advocated publicly managed forests. (The few professional foresters in America at the time had received their training in European schools. European-trained foresters such as Gifford Pinchot and Bernhard Fernow contributed to this debate.) The idea of forest management as a profession, however, was gaining a strong foothold through the work of the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Division of Forestry. The first forestry schools were established in 1898: The Biltmore School of Forestry on the Vanderbilt estate in North Carolina's Appalachian Mountains and the New York State College of Forestry at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York.

The debate about publicly managed forests fell into three broad themes. One advocated preservation or reservation of public forested lands with no

or restricted use. Another emphasized continuing the tradition of easy access or acquisition and unregulated—largely free—use of the public lands and their resources. A third theme focused on what may be viewed as a middle ground of "wise use" through Federal reservation and management.

These issues and debates were aggravated by the passage of the Creative or Forest Reserve Act of 1891, which gave the President of the United States the authority to proclaim forest reserves, but made no provision for their use and management. Under its implementing regulations, notices were published in local newspapers and posted on forest reserve boundaries in 1894, stating that:

> *All persons are hereby warned not to settle upon, occupy, or use any of these lands for agricultural, mining, or other business purposes; nor to cut, remove, or use any of the timber, grass, or other natural products thereof, except under such regulations as may hereafter be prescribed (Muhn 1992).*

Thus, the resources of the first national forest reserves were literally "off-limits and their resources...locked up" (Arnold 1992). Among others, livestock graziers, the predominant users, were particularly infuriated by such restrictions and opposed the establishment of the reserves.

By September 1893, Presidents Harrison and Cleveland had proclaimed 17 forest reserves totaling 18 million acres, but in that year, President Cleveland decided to stop creating reserves until Congress could provide guidance for managing them. The McRae Bill (H.R. 119) addressing the use and management of the forest reserves was introduced in Congress in late 1893 but did not pass. No more reserves were established until 1897, when on February 22, as his term was expiring, President Cleveland proclaimed or expanded 13 more reserves (the Washington's Birthday Reserves), totaling 21 million acres—more than doubling the total area of the Federal forest reserves. His action raised a new furor of western opposition to the new reserves and congressional pressures on the new President, William McKinley, to rescind the proclamations. He did not!

The Organic Act. The Organic Act emerged from this 1897 confrontation. It was enacted on June 4, 1897, with wording very similar to that of the 1893 bill. It established the purposes of the national forests and their management guidance with this statement:

> *No public forest reservation shall be established, except to improve and protect the forest within the reservation, or for the purpose of securing favorable conditions of water flows, and to furnish a continuous supply of timber for use and necessities of the citizens of the United States; but it is not the purpose or intent of these provisions, or the Act providing such reservations, to authorize the inclusion therein of lands more valuable for the minerals therein, or for agricultural purposes, than for forest purposes.*

The first regulations for management of the forest reserves, approved by Secretary of the Interior Cornelius N. Bliss on June 30, 1897, interpreted the policy this way. "Public forest reservations are established to protect and improve the forests for the purpose of securing a permanent supply of timber for the people and insuring conditions favorable to continuous water flow." Lands "more valuable" for mineral development or agricultural use were to be excluded from national forest reservation (USDI General Land Office 1897).

The act further permitted the use of timber and stone, free of charge, by bona fide settlers, miners, residents, and prospectors for minerals, for firewood, fencing, buildings, mining, prospecting, and other domestic purposes. They were also assured the right of "egress or ingress" to their inholdings, properties, and homes and there would be no prohibition of entry to national forests for "proper and lawful purposes." The act also provided for the use of "all waters...for domestic, mining, milling, or irrigation purposes under the laws of the State" and the United States and the rules and regulations for such use. Settlers were granted rights-of-way for wagon roads, irrigation canals, ditches, flumes, and reservoirs.

The original language of the act also specifically directed that "dead, matured and large growth

timber" could be harvested and sold "For the purpose of preserving the living and growing timber and promoting younger growth..." but such timber had to be "marked and designated" and the harvest supervised by persons "not interested in the purchase and removal of such timber."

The Secretary of Agriculture (Secretary of the Interior before 1905) was also directed to protect the public forests against destruction by fire or depredation and make rules and regulations for their "occupancy and use and to preserve the forests thereon from destruction." This general provision delegated authority to permit other uses of national forests such as grazing, recreation, and wildlife consistent with the direction to "improve and protect" the forest.

The Long-Term Strength of the Organic Act

The Congress, through the Organic Act, encouraged the use of the national forests and their resources as it directed their protection and improvement. In doing so, it clearly tried to accommodate the wide range of user interests—an apparent political objective or accommodation. It also sought to maximize the use value of the public domain lands by excluding those lands "more valuable" for minerals and agricultural production. The act defined the purposes for establishing forest reserves only in the very broadest terms. It, likewise, gave the broadest authority and discretion to the Secretary of Agriculture and his delegated managers, the Forest Service (the Secretary of the Interior and the General Land Office before 1905), to develop rules and regulations for their occupancy and use. It set no specific limits on use and users, leaving that up to the managers of the forests. In these respects, the Organic Act seems to have been closely attuned to the national policy and the regional interests of the time for settlement and development of the West.

Viewed from today's perspective on environmental quality and sustainable ecosystems, the Organic Act's greatest strength was its direction to "improve and protect the forest," particularly for maintaining favorable waterflows and a continuous supply of timber.

Although these first guidelines were broad, they contained specific policy direction that put national forest management on a pathway toward an ecological approach to ecosystem and resource management. These directions clearly required that watersheds and their soils be protected from serious damage by use or management. They also called for assurance that the forests would be regenerated. The first "Use Books," as the early guidelines for use and management were called, emphatically directed forest managers to take care where soil-disturbing management practices were applied—particularly timber harvests—to ensure that watersheds and waterflows would be adequately protected for downstream users. This approach, from the beginning, implicitly reflected an ecosystem-wide concern for protecting soil and water resources and their long-term sustainability. As timber harvesting and road building became the most visible and extensive soil-disturbing activities in later years—during and after World War II—National Forest System (NFS) management maintained and intensified the priority for protecting watersheds and soils. Resource managers provided such protection by coordinating use and management activities with national forest soil and water resource experts. There have been management failures, but most have been rehabilitated so that watersheds and waterflows have not become regional or national problems or issues.

The act actually anticipated that timber harvesting would be followed by regeneration and would promote younger forests and encourage timber growth. Over the years, the forest cover has been maintained, although its structure has been considerably altered. Net annual national forest timber growth including mortality is now at its highest level, 3.3 billion cubic feet, compared with 2.1 billion in 1952 and much less in earlier decades (Powell 1992).

In the early decades, when range grazing was the most widespread use of national forests, resource managers focused on rehabilitating the rangelands that had been badly damaged by severe and extended droughts and overgrazing at the

end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century. They implemented three strategies: working with graziers to reduce the number of domestic animals to the capacity of the grazing allotments (measured in animal unit months); rehabilitating range forage vegetation; and encouraging grazing methods that achieved more effective forage use. By 1936, national forest rangelands, managed under the discretionary authority of the Organic Act, were greatly improved compared with the conditions on public domain (currently administered by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management) and private rangelands outside the national forests. Today, only 15 percent of the national forest grazing lands are in unsatisfactory condition (Fedkiw 1997).

Under the Weeks Act of 1911, as amended, the NFS acquired over 25 million acres of primarily heavily cutover woodlands and abandoned former croplands in the eastern States. National forest management focused on rehabilitating and reforesting them to restore healthy forest ecosystems; protect watersheds—a prime tenet of the Organic Act; and to add to the timber supply. Most of this has now been successfully accomplished—but a great deal more was also done to restore and improve wildlife and fisheries habitats and to provide a wide diversity of recreational opportunities.

Big game populations on the national forests were at their lowest levels when the Organic Act was passed and in the early decades of national forest management. All big game populations have generally increased as a result of major improvements in State game laws and management and the restocking and habitat improvements that national forest land managers provided. Hunting visitor-day use rose from about 2 million in 1947 to 19 million in 1996. In response to changing public values during recent decades, particularly the emergence of the endangered species legislation, wildlife management on national forests has changed its focus and increased its attention to nongame species.

Although fish populations and habitats, in general, appear to be poorer than they were in early decades, much of this decline can be attributed to such factors as reservoir construction for various purposes, both offshore and instream commercial and sporting fish harvests, diseases, agriculture, irrigation, and other land management on private lands—much of which was downstream from national forests. National forests, however, have generally sought to protect and improve fish habitats, especially in more recent decades. Over the years, national forest angler visitor-day use rose from somewhat more than 2 million visitor days in 1947 to nearly 18 million in 1996 (Fedkiw 1997).

Recreation use, including fishing and hunting, rose from a few million visitor days a year in the early years to about 15 million by World War II, then escalated spectacularly after the war, more rapidly than the exploding population growth, to 160 million in 1965 and 341 million visitor days in 1996. Visitor use diversified as much as it intensified. National forest managers were continually challenged to provide recreation visitors with safe, sanitary facilities and adequate services that were compatible with other national forest uses. The wilderness concept for national forest use and enjoyment emerged in the 1920's and by 1941, the Forest Service had so designated 2.5 million acres. Today, there are 35 million acres of designated National Forest Wilderness, 18 percent of all NFS lands.

As NFS management evolved, its managers established Research Natural Areas (RNA), beginning in the 1920's, to document baseline data on individual natural ecosystems and forest types that could be used to evaluate the effects of national forest use and management on ecosystem processes under the Organic Act. The RNA concept emerged within the Ecological Society of America in 1917 to protect the habitats of rare plants and animals. To that end, the society set up a work group that ultimately became The Nature Conservancy—a longtime cooperator with the Forest Service.

The ecological aspects of national forest management gained further attention in 1970, when Chief Edward Cliff gave the following message to Regional Foresters and Station Directors:

> *I am convinced that with an ecosystem approach to multiple-use management, our forests and rangelands can contribute to a better living for present and future generations... (USDA Forest Service 1970).*

That was followed by the establishment of an ecosystem management training program at Colorado State University where the Forest Service cosponsored an Ecosystem Management Short Course with the Range Science Department. This course, when the university initially offered it in 1968, became the first university-level course in ecosystem management per se. By the early 1980's, nearly 1,000 national forest managers and staff experts from the Ranger District to the Chief had participated in it. Many of its graduates also participated in national forest land and resource management planning training programs that were established under NFMA (the National Forest Management Act of 1976). These graduates provided a bridge that linked ecosystem management principles with national forest planning and management (Fedkiw 1997).

In 1992, the Forest Service formally adopted an ecosystem approach to managing national forests. Chief F. Dale Robertson announced it this way:

> *An ecological approach will be used to achieve the multiple use management of the national forests and grasslands. It means we must blend the needs of people and environmental values in such a way that national forests and grasslands represent diverse, healthy, productive, and sustainable ecosystems (USDA Forest Service 1994).*

In 1993, the Chief's Office asked national forest managers to begin using the National Hierarchical Framework for Ecological Units to provide a consistent basis for collecting data on resource conditions, estimating ecosystem productivity and probable responses to management practices, and interaction effects among ecosystem units for land management planning. This framework was initially developed by the Forest Service's Robert G. Bailey in the 1970's. It was improved through the years so that when Forest Service leadership needed it, it was ready for application (Fedkiw 1997).

In 1998, the Organic Act of 1897 remains on the books—where it retains its strong emphasis on the use, improvement, and protection of national forests, including the maintenance of "favorable conditions of water flows" and "a continuous supply of timber" and the authority of the Secretary of Agriculture to make rules and regulations for national forest occupancy and use and to ensure their permanence.

Over the years, however, legislation and court adjudications have greatly amended and supplemented it. This has directly affected the way national forests are managed. Such amendments and supplements have increased the specificity of planning procedures, management guidelines, and environmental standards and have provided for increased public participation. Such specifications have indirectly affected the mix of national forest uses—but not their continuously growing diversity.

The Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960 (MUSYA). MUSYA supplemented the Organic Act's watershed and timber purposes by adding outdoor recreation, range, and wildlife and fisheries to the specific purposes for which national forests could be established. Under the MUSYA, the establishment of wilderness areas was recognized as being consistent with these purposes, and "multiple use" was defined as "the management of all the renewable surface resources of the National Forests so that they are utilized in the combination that will best meet the needs of the American people."

The National Forest Management Act of 1976 (NFMA). This act evolved from a controversy and court suit over the Organic Act's specific timber harvesting and sales guidelines but went far beyond being a simple remedy to the court's decision. It reaffirmed and further defined the concepts of multiple-use and sustained-yield management, emphasized balanced consideration of all resources, and outlined policies and procedures for national forest land management planning (U.S. Government Printing Office 1979). The National Forest Management Act's implementing regulations provided even more detailed guidance and standards for national forest planning. The resulting forest plans became legal documents for guiding national forest management under the more general authority of the Organic Act, and

both the plans and the management that they proposed became the subject of judicial review and court suits.

A Long-Term Shortfall?

Did the rapidly rising level and growing diversity of national forest uses and users after World War II and the emergence of NFMA reveal a shortfall in the Organic Act and MUSYA—the lack of any specific criteria or guidelines to determine the use "combination that would best meet the needs and values of the American people"? (This lack has often been cited as a weakness of the MUSYA particularly among forest economists, including the author.) Although the policy for managing multiple uses did not become explicit until MUSYA, it was implicit in Gifford Pinchot's guideline for implementing the Organic Act: "The greatest good for the greatest number in the long run." The mix, amount, and location of the uses was largely left up to the Secretary of Agriculture and the Forest Service as well as to the demand for national forest use from the marketplace and the American people. These demands became the strong driving force in the management of national forests.

The Forest Service used its decision authority to improve and protect the national forests and to decisively determine the mix, amount, and location of uses as they grew and diversified—use by use, locale by locale, year by year, decade after decade. National forest managers recognized from the beginning, however, that national forest uses would "sometimes conflict a little" and had to be "made to fit with one another so that the machine would run smoothly as a whole." Often one use would have to give way a little here, and another a little there, so that both could benefit "a great deal in the end" (Pinchot 1907). National forest managers worked with users, local communities, and regional interests to effectively use national forest resources in ways that were compatible with other uses and with the capabilities of the ecosystems to supply them.

A corollary "weakness" of the Organic Act may be its lack of any goals or guidelines for what constitutes the "proper" improvement and protection of the national forests beyond maintaining favorable conditions of waterflow, ensuring a continuous supply of timber, and avoiding their destruction, particularly by fire. These determinations were likewise left to the professional knowledge, judgment, and discretion of those who administered and managed the national forests. But, they were also influenced by the appropriations and funding of Congress. Over the longer term, certain interest groups, individual citizens, and the public would take exception to the discretion of national forest managers and the course such discretion was taking for national forest use and management, and they would effect major changes in this course through legislation, appeals, and court suits.

This apparent shortfall of the Organic Act—lack of specific guidelines for determining the best long-term combination of uses and the appropriate protection and improvement of the forests—may not necessarily have been a weakness. The Organic Act's broad discretionary decision authority may have provided managers with flexibility, particularly from a political viewpoint, to respond to the changing public demands and the growing level and diversity of national forest use. Managers found they also needed such flexibility to deal with the immediate or short-term uncertainties and the longer term changes in science, knowledge, technology, social values, and economic markets and with our limited ability to predict nature's responses to forest use and management.

It is difficult to imagine how such guidelines could have been written into the law for the long term, given the impossibility of envisioning conditions 50 to 100 years hence, with a growing and dynamic population, economy, society, and environment. The real shortfall may lie in the inability of our Nation's democratic processes to establish a consensus on what the long-term optimum combination for national forest use and management may be. Perhaps the only approach to such an optimum combination is through incremental and adaptive management—acre by acre, use by use, year by year, decade by decade—as our society grows and matures, social values evolve, and science and knowledge increase.

The Changing Management Situation

The Early Decades. In the first 48 years of the Organic Act, because resource demands were modest and there was plenty of space for all within the national forests, the number of uses and users grew through World War II with little conflict even though the uses often overlapped and adjoined. Trails and roads designed for forest fire protection, administration, and timber management provided access for hunting, fishing, and other recreational activities. Timber harvests barely averaged a billion board feet per year throughout this period. The regrowth of browse, grasses, and trees on areas where timber has been harvested improved wildlife food supplies and cover. Resource damage from forest fires decreased significantly from an average annual burn of 1.2 million acres in the decade from 1910 to 1920 to an average annual burn of 234,000 acres by 1945.

Sheep and cattle grazing was the most widespread use of national forests. In the first decade after the Organic Act, about 7.5 million sheep and 1.5 million cattle grazed on national forest land. Overgrazing and vegetative depletion and the resultant flooding, erosion, and sedimentation were widespread problems. At the time, national forest management focused on reducing the numbers of grazing animals and rehabilitating range conditions. Cattlemen and sheepowners were sensitive to big game and its predators using rangelands, but national forest managers were usually able to find ways to reconcile such concerns without major conflicts. National forest managers established campgrounds, sanitary facilities, and fireplaces to improve the quality of outdoor recreation experiences and protect forest resources. Game populations grew. The RNA concept was implemented. The first wilderness areas were established. The abandoned and eroding farmlands and the heavily cutover woodlands acquired under the Weeks Act were being reforested and improved and on their way to being restored ecosystems.

By 1945, homesteading of lands suitable for agriculture within national forests was no longer an issue. Although there were still significant acres of rangeland in unsatisfactory condition, rangeland conditions were generally improving. While the area of national forests tripled to approximately 178 million acres, the number of sheep and cattle grazing on national forest allotments was reduced to 6.3 million. Increased timber harvest from the huge national forest reserves had contributed effectively to lumber and plywood production and military needs in World War II. Because of frequent misuse and some abuse of the mineral laws and lack of adequate implementing regulations for national forest land management, the management of surface resources of mineral claims received increasing attention.

The Post-World War II Era and the Wilderness Issue. Rapid economic and population growth after World War II created extraordinary demands on the Nation's natural resource goods and services. National forests quickly became a major source for expanding supply to meet these demands. National forest managers were immediately challenged to rebuild and expand access roads, facilities, equipment, and their workforces, which had been depleted by war production and military demands for personnel. They also had to make up for the maintenance and management that the war years had deferred and to deal with the rapid resource growth demands that outran and continually taxed their managerial and workforce capabilities.

The use of all national forest resources accelerated during the postwar era—generally more rapidly than the national population and economic growth. As long as the level of national forest use remained relatively low compared to the capacity of the forests to absorb such use, conflicts were largely avoided or mitigated by coordinating among functions. Users and State and local community water resource and wildlife officials helped resolve issues as they emerged. National forest efforts to coordinate land uses through management planning became more informed and more deliberate. As coordination became more complex and challenging, the Forest Service introduced more formal, consistent procedures for planning and integrating the various multiple uses and for working toward improving and protecting national

forests. The problem of such integration reached national proportions during the 1960's, when pressures from the timber industry and wilderness interests, respectively, sought to increase or to halt the harvesting of the remaining western old-growth timber stands.

Wilderness interests perceived the unroaded and unharvested timber lands as "the remaining wilderness." They saw the Forest Service's construction of roads to access old-growth timber as rapidly reducing their options for wilderness designation. The Forest Service thought MUSYA's enactment was the solution. It provided policy direction for a nationally balanced mix of uses in the face of the opposing pressures for wilderness and market and timber industry demands from "single use interests" and the possibility for "overuse" (USDA Forest Service 1961).

The Forest Service perceived wilderness as the last remnant of America's pristine conditions and set aside such lands to provide opportunities for those who wished to "rough it" as well as those who yearned for solitude and reflective, awe-inspiring experiences. This approach had worked well in the 1940's and early 1950's when the Forest Service identified some 15 million acres for wilderness evaluation and dedication. It received wide support among all interest groups. To this point, the Organic Act had worked well.

In the latter 1950's, however, wilderness leaders and advocates began to lose confidence in the Forest Service's discretion to designate commercial timberlands as wilderness, especially if such areas were also valuable for wilderness use—even though some areas had evidence of previous human use and were not in pristine condition. In 1956, wilderness advocates began a prolonged effort to obtain a wilderness designation statute; withdraw the Forest Service's authority to declassify or reduce the size of wilderness-type areas; protect wilderness against mining and water developments; and extend wilderness preservation to other Federal lands (Roth 1984a). Congress, responding to these national pressures, passed the Wilderness Act of 1964 establishing the National Wilderness Preservation System. Congress delegated unto itself the power to designate new wildernesses on national forests and other Federal lands. The national forest manager's role was limited to specifying and evaluating candidate areas, recommending their designation, and managing the wilderness after Congress designated it. Congress also began considering the wilderness proposals of individuals and citizen groups. When it enacted the Eastern Wilderness Act of 1974, it rejected the pristine doctrine as a requirement for wilderness designation. Wilderness areas did not have to be "untrammeled by man" as long as past human activity was "substantially unnoticeable."

Did this experience with the "wilderness movement" signify a failure in national forest planning and decision making—or a shortfall or weakness in the Organic Act and its major amendment, the Multiple-Use Sustained Yield Act? Or did it signify a major shift in social values within our democracy that constituted a political problem calling for a political solution? Whatever the answer, national forest managers continued to manage the wilderness to or toward pristine standards without Congress or the wilderness interests disapproving.

In retrospect, the wilderness movement experience was, in various ways, a harbinger of many changes to come in national forest management direction, procedures, and uses that resulted from the environmental and wilderness movements, the National Environment Policy Act (NEPA), and management laws that followed in the 1970's and thereafter. Some were specific to the national forests, but many more applied to all Federal lands or all the Nation's lands or to particular resources such as the air, water, and endangered species.

Public Participation and Proliferating Appeals, Court Suits, and New Laws. During the 1960's, Congress liberalized citizens' right to sue the Federal Government. Beginning in the 1970's, NEPA required Federal agencies to prepare environmental analyses to assess and reveal the environmental effects of the agency's plans and proposed decisions. Individuals and organizations could now sue the Federal Government and appeal such actions as national forest plans and management decisions that they perceived adversely affected the environment. The number of court

suits and appeals grew rapidly during the 1970's, accelerated in the 1980's, and continues into the present.

The National Forest Management Act and its implementing regulations provided procedures for developing long-term management plans and many specific standards and guidelines for managing national forest resources, revised the specific timber management guidelines in the original language of the Organic Act, directed that the public participate in the national forest planning process, and endorsed the MUSYA policy—to manage national forests for multiple use "in the combination that will best meet the needs of the American people" within the framework of the Organic Act.

Consistent with the purposes of the Organic Act and MUSYA, NFMA plans established long-term use goals and objectives and management direction for implementing them for the next 15 years (the period for updating the plans) with projections to the 50th year. These plans became the legal basis for developing and proposing national forest management, programs, and budgets for individual forests, Regions, and the National Forest System. The appropriation acts and program objectives of Congress and the allocation of those funds and objectives to the national forests ultimately determined their actual implementation.

Many of the new laws affecting national forest use and management were the by-product of the public's growing knowledge, awareness, and interest in the national forests and the great growth in their use and users. This sea change was reinforced by population growth; great improvements in public communication, education, transportation and mobility; affluence; and a changing demography as Americans migrated to the West and South as well as from urban to the more rural settings of national forests. These trends introduced a new set of interests and relative values for national forest resources both nationally and in communities surrounding them, which differed significantly from the traditional local interests and values. Most of the new interests developed national followings that were instrumental in effecting new legislation, not only for the use and management of national forests, but also for the overall quality of the national environment.

The liberalization of the citizen's right to sue the Federal Government and laws that required public participation opened the way for massive public involvement in national forest planning and management. There were major differences between the views of the timber, rangeland, and commercial mining interests and users, and the new interests in wilderness, environmental quality, and conservation. National forest managers' discretion and judgment, though based on professional knowledge, science, and experience, often fell short in reconciling these conflicting interests and values. Wilderness, environmental, and conservation interests also often took exception to the forest managers' implementation of the new environmentally oriented legislation. These conflicts often led to unprecedented numbers of appeals and court suits on the adequacy of the new forest plans. They challenged the compliance and the environmental effectiveness of national forest management projects and practices under the forest plans and the new legislative guidelines and procedures for such planning and management.

National forest managers were confused and frustrated by this melange of land and resource management challenges. They, nevertheless, proceeded to adapt their management to these changing standards and guidelines and the expectations of the American public. At the same time, they carried out the congressional direction reflected in the funding and program objectives of the appropriation acts and the policy priorities of each Administration. National forest managers now not only had to coordinate and integrate national forest resource uses on the land, congressional direction, and the priorities of the Administration, they also had to integrate national forest management with the new forest plans, the direction and guidelines of the multiplicity of new environmental and resource use laws, the contending values of the multiple private and public user interests, and the judicial direction emerging from court suits. There were many "cooks in the kitchen" but still no "recipe" for what constituted the "combination that would best meet the needs of the American people" or what constituted the "proper" way to "improve and protect the forest."

What was the problem? Was it a failure in the professional decision making of national forest managers or a shortfall or weakness in the Organic Act? Or was it the inability of the American people to agree, through open, democratic processes, on what constitutes the proper use, protection, and improvement of the national forests? Have the new laws, public participation, or the court suits and judicial reviews, individually or collectively, provided a satisfactory general solution? *Is* there a solution?

A New Approach to a Solution

In the face of mounting confrontation—the challenge of satisfying all the interests and all the new procedures, standards, and guidelines for national forest planning and management—the Forest Service, in 1992, adopted the ecosystem approach to managing multiple uses and benefits of the national forests for the American people. Although, as yet, there are no widely accepted theories or practical guidelines for what constitutes ecosystem management, national forest managers understand the basic principles of the holistic ecological approach and are moving incrementally and adaptively toward that ideal of fully holistic ecosystem management. It will be as much a learning experience as a management experience, much as national forest management has been in the past for both the managers and American people. National forest managers are sensitive to the importance of maintaining and restoring biological diversity and other environmental objectives. The lessons from long and broad experience and the underlying science for natural resource management provide a useful background and tools for doing so.

Perhaps the greater challenge is how to integrate the diverse public and private jurisdictions and interests into an ecosystem approach to natural resource management. Such an approach must take into account the objectives of the many people and governments who own or manage the extensive ecosystems surrounding national forests and the conditions and uses of those ecosystems. The Forest Service has recently adopted a "collaborative stewardship" approach to meet this need. It is based on inventorying ecosystem conditions on national forests and surrounding ownerships and jurisdictions, mutually sharing this information, and discussing national forest management issues in the broader context of resource conditions, objectives, and management on national forests and the other ownerships and public jurisdictions. It seeks consensual guidance and approval for national forest decision making and decisions.

While the collaborative stewardship process does not guarantee a public consensus on national forest management decisions, it emulates government legislative processes for making public policies and decisions that consider the many interests and values of a diverse citizenry. But, it does not include the power of the voting process all government legislative bodies have for deciding public issues. The final decision remains with the Federal Government. Despite public participation and consensual agreement efforts with diverse publics and citizens, unsatisfied clients can seek a more favorable outcome for their interests, question national forest use and management judgments (and the professional resource managers' authority to make them on behalf of the public), and often do so—through appeals and court suits and by expressing their issues through the public media, to Congress, and to the Administration.

Conclusion

One hundred years after the Organic Act, the national forests remain resilient and responsive to management. Although their relative mix and management direction have changed a great deal since World War II, and especially since 1990, the uses remain much the same as they were when the Organic Act became law. Timber sales and harvests have been greatly reduced from an average level of about 11 billion board feet during the 1960's, 1970's, and 1980's to a current level of about 4 billion board feet—about the same level as at the end of World War II. National forest land area available for timber harvest has dropped from 72 million acres in 1985 to 49 million acres in

1996. National forest managers have achieved much more effective control over the use and management of surface resources on mineral claims and developments. Range managers are placing greater emphasis on environmental objectives, particularly for wetlands, riparian areas, and fish habitats.

Wildlife management is focusing much more intensely on the habitats of nongame, rare, endangered, threatened, and sensitive species, and cold and warm water fisheries. Wilderness is being managed to achieve and maintain pristine conditions that sustain their ecosystems, and their use is being managed accordingly. The primary concern of management is, as it was in the past, to ensure the permanence of national forest resources, particularly the protection of watersheds, waterflows, and soil productivity. The holistic ecosystem approach to managing multiple uses and benefits of national forests has been adopted and is being systematically developed and applied. Generally, the management emphasis of the national forests has shifted from maintaining ecosystems for production to maintaining and restoring ecosystems for their environmental services.

Public participation and the proliferation of contentious appeals and court suits on the use and management of national forests and many new environmental laws have accelerated National Forest System management along its pathway toward a more fully holistic ecological approach toward sustaining resources and their ecosystems. This rate of progress, however, has been limited by congressional appropriations acts, programs, and budgets which, along with staffing, have been increasingly constrained in recent years by the need to reduce budget deficits and avoid excessive inflation and by the "reinvention" of government. Volunteers and the matching investments of partners in national forest management do much to supplement the Federally funded efforts for managing national forests. Even though national forest benefits have never been greater, and use continues to grow, national forest management challenges and the problems of achieving public consensus have likewise never been greater.

Despite this progress, the proliferation of new laws, and the continuing appeals and court suits, the American people have still not agreed upon any specific criteria or guidelines for determining what constitutes the long-term optimum use, protection, and improvement of national forests except that which emerges acre by acre, use by use, year by year from the continuing dialogue and direction from public participation, national forest plans, appeals and court suits, new laws, appropriations and budgets, and the decisions of national forest managers—and that's OK. It is difficult to visualize or imagine how to extricate national forest management from the complexity and high costs of this highly participative, and often contentious, decision making process. The outlook for the increasing use and the rising value of national forest lands and resources suggests that the process will only become more complex and more contentious. But, at the same time, it can be flexible enough to take into account the changing needs and values of the American people and to accommodate the growing science, knowledge, and technology for natural resource management.

In the face of this proliferating public participation and legislation, the century of survival of the broad management guidelines of the Organic Act of 1897, as amended and supplemented, and its delegation of national forest management planning and decision making to professional managers, through the Secretary of Agriculture, suggests the long-term merit of the Organic Act's framework. In fact, the major changes in the original act have occurred largely in the amendment of specific management directives such as those for the marking and the harvesting of trees. Perhaps the greatest weaknesses in the national forest management setting lie in the lack of a national consensus about the optimum use and management of national forests or criteria therefor, the diversity of user and public interests, and the wide-open nature of our democratic system and processes. The most important consideration is that the public and the media not place all the burden for resolving these dilemmas on the national forest managers and the Forest Service. For collaborative stewardship to work effectively, this responsibility must be understood and shared by the national forest use and management community of interest and national forest managers.

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Gifford Pinchot: Forester and Conservationist, First Chief of the Forest Service

Jerry Williams, Historian and Regional Sociologist,
Pacific Northwest Region

Gifford Pinchot was a national leader in the fledgling conservation movement during the Progressive Era at the turn of the 20th century. Pinchot, one of the first professionally trained foresters in the United States, came from a wealthy and influential Pennsylvania family. His friendship with President Theodore Roosevelt and his organizational abilities in administering the publicly owned forest reserves (later called national forests) led to the establishment of a professionally based Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture. Pinchot's charismatic leadership and personal philosophy have left a significant mark on the wise use of natural resources in the United States today.

Gifford Pinchot—His Life

Gifford Pinchot was born on August 11, 1865, in Simsbury, Connecticut, at the home of his maternal grandfather, Amos R. Eno. Eno had recently purchased the house from his father-in-law, Elisha Phelps. Phelps was Speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives in the 1820's. Pinchot's parents, James W. and Mary Eno Pinchot, and grandparents on both sides of the family were well-to-do, upper class merchants, politicians, and landowners. As a young boy, Pinchot had opportunities to visit other countries, as well as gain a good education at some of the best Eastern schools (Læhde 1965; McGreary 1960; and USDA Forest Service 1979).

[Pinchot's] early years were spent in New York City where [Amos] Eno was a leading realtor and socialite. Young Pinchot enjoyed numerous trips to Europe during his childhood, and, indeed, lived for a time in France. Many a summer during this period he spent in New England, where he learned to love greenery and forests. He secured his [college prep] education at the Phillips Exeter Academy, and then went on to Yale (Nash 1967:xii–xiii).

After finishing 4 years of college, Pinchot went to Europe to train as a forester. After learning the basics of European forestry in France and Germany, he returned to the United States to work as a resident forester and private consultant. In 1898, Pinchot was appointed the Chief of the Department of Agriculture's Division of Forestry. In 1905, he was appointed the first Chief of the Forest Service. Pinchot built a professionally staffed and highly acclaimed Forest Service—which he led for 5 years. Pinchot's outspoken criticism of Interior Secretary Richard A. Ballinger's handling of the Alaska coal land case led to President Taft firing him in 1910 for insubordination (Hays 1959; McGreary 1960; Munger 1962; Pinchot 1947; Pinkett 1970; and Place 1957).

Training as a Forester

"How would you like to be a forester?" was the question his father asked him when he entered Yale in 1885. His father, James Pinchot, was a

strong supporter and member of the American Forestry Association—founded in 1875. Years later, Gifford wrote in his autobiography, *Breaking New Ground*, about that question and his rationale for deciding to become a forester:

> *When it was asked, not a single American had made Forestry his profession. Not an acre of timber was being handled under the principles of Forestry anywhere else in America... Forestry was a brand-new idea to me. I had no more conception of what it meant to be a forester than the man in the moon...But at least a forester worked in the woods and with the woods—and I loved the woods and everything about them. As a boy, it was my firm intention to be a naturalist... Whatever Forestry might be, I was for it. Until that moment, I had been undecided between medicine and the ministry. My father's suggestion settled the question in favor of Forestry (Pinchot 1947:1–3).*

However, Yale did not offer forestry as a major and did not offer a single class on the subject. In order to pursue this "course of study" Gifford Pinchot searched the Yale Library for books on forestry—finding George Perkins Marsh's book *The Earth as Modified by Human Action*, Charles S. Sargent's volume on American forests, and several Department of Agriculture and American Forestry Congress publications. Pinchot's family also gave him some books on forestry (Pinchot 1947). After graduation from Yale in 1889, Pinchot went to Washington, DC, to look into the possibilities of finding work as a forester in the Federal government. All the authorities told him that there were no opportunities and that he should study in other fields. "I had chosen forestry, but still did not know exactly what it was I had chosen...I went abroad to find out" (Pinchot 1947:6). After talking with a number of British and French officials, he decided to study at the L'Ecole Nationale Forestriere (French Forestry School) in Nancy, France.

After almost a year of forestry study, Pinchot left Nancy to visit Sir Dietrich Brandis, founder of forestry in British India, at Bonn, Prussia (now Germany). Pinchot joined Dr. Brandis' annual summer tour for the British Forestry School "through the most interesting forests of Germany and Switzerland" (Pinchot 1947:18). Thus, in a little over 1 year, Pinchot was introduced to the new theories of forestry and exposed to the forest conditions and practical forest management of several Western European countries. This concluded his formal forestry training.

After 13 months of European forestry training, Pinchot returned to the United States to prepare for his lifelong work and interest:

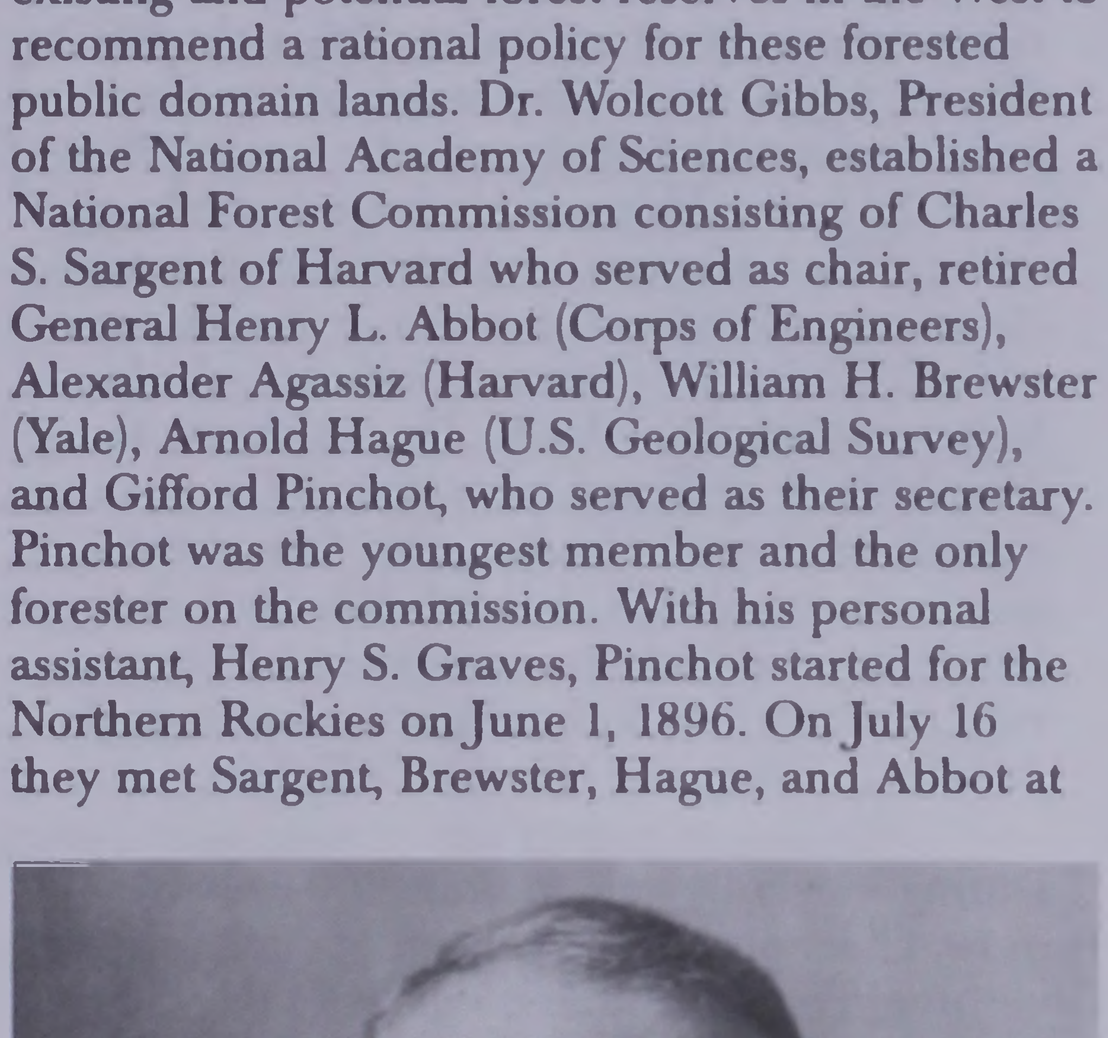
> *When I came home, not a single acre of Government, state, or private timberland was under systematic forest management anywhere on the most richly timbered of all continents... When the Gay Nineties began, the common word for our forests was "inexhaustible." To waste timber was a virtue and not a crime. There would always be plenty of timber... The lumbermen... regarded forest devastation as normal and second growth as the delusion of fools...And as for sustained yield, no such idea had ever entered their heads. The few friends the forest had were spoken of, when spoken of at all, as impractical theorists, fanatics, and "denudatics," more or less touched in the head. What talk there was about forest protection was no more to the average American than the buzzing of a mosquito, and just about as irritating (Pinchot 1947:27).*

During Pinchot's time in France, Bernhard Fernow, Chief of the Department of Agriculture's Division of Forestry, offered Pinchot a job as his assistant chief—a job that was to involve mostly office work. Pinchot accepted but asked that the appointment be deferred for a year (Steen 1976). After his return, Pinchot met with Fernow, and they agreed to travel through the southern States to observe forest conditions. However, Pinchot did not go to work as Fernow's assistant chief, instead he went to George Vanderbilt's Biltmore Estate near Asheville, North Carolina, as resident forester to develop and manage the 7,000-acre forested tract. He managed Vanderbilt's forest land, seeking to make it the first practical application of forestry in America. His intent was to prove that forestry was not only practical—but profitable. Pinchot left Biltmore after 3 years and started a consulting business, which developed a

management plan for a 40,000-acre tract of forest in New York. He became actively involved with the American Forestry Association and with the National Forest Commission within the National Academy of Sciences (Pinchot 1947; Schenk 1955; and Steen 1976).

National Forest Commission of 1896–97

In February 1896, the Secretary of the Interior requested that the National Academy of Sciences investigate and report on the conditions of the existing and potential forest reserves in the West to recommend a rational policy for these forested public domain lands. Dr. Wolcott Gibbs, President of the National Academy of Sciences, established a National Forest Commission consisting of Charles S. Sargent of Harvard who served as chair, retired General Henry L. Abbot (Corps of Engineers), Alexander Agassiz (Harvard), William H. Brewster (Yale), Arnold Hague (U.S. Geological Survey), and Gifford Pinchot, who served as their secretary. Pinchot was the youngest member and the only forester on the commission. With his personal assistant, Henry S. Graves, Pinchot started for the Northern Rockies on June 1, 1896. On July 16 they met Sargent, Brewster, Hague, and Abbot at Belton, Montana. "To my great delight, John Muir was with them. In his late fifties, tall, thin, cordial, and a most fascinating talker, I took to him at once" (Pinchot 1947:100). The party went to Northern Idaho, then returned to Missoula, Montana, and after more backcountry travels, to Portland, Oregon.



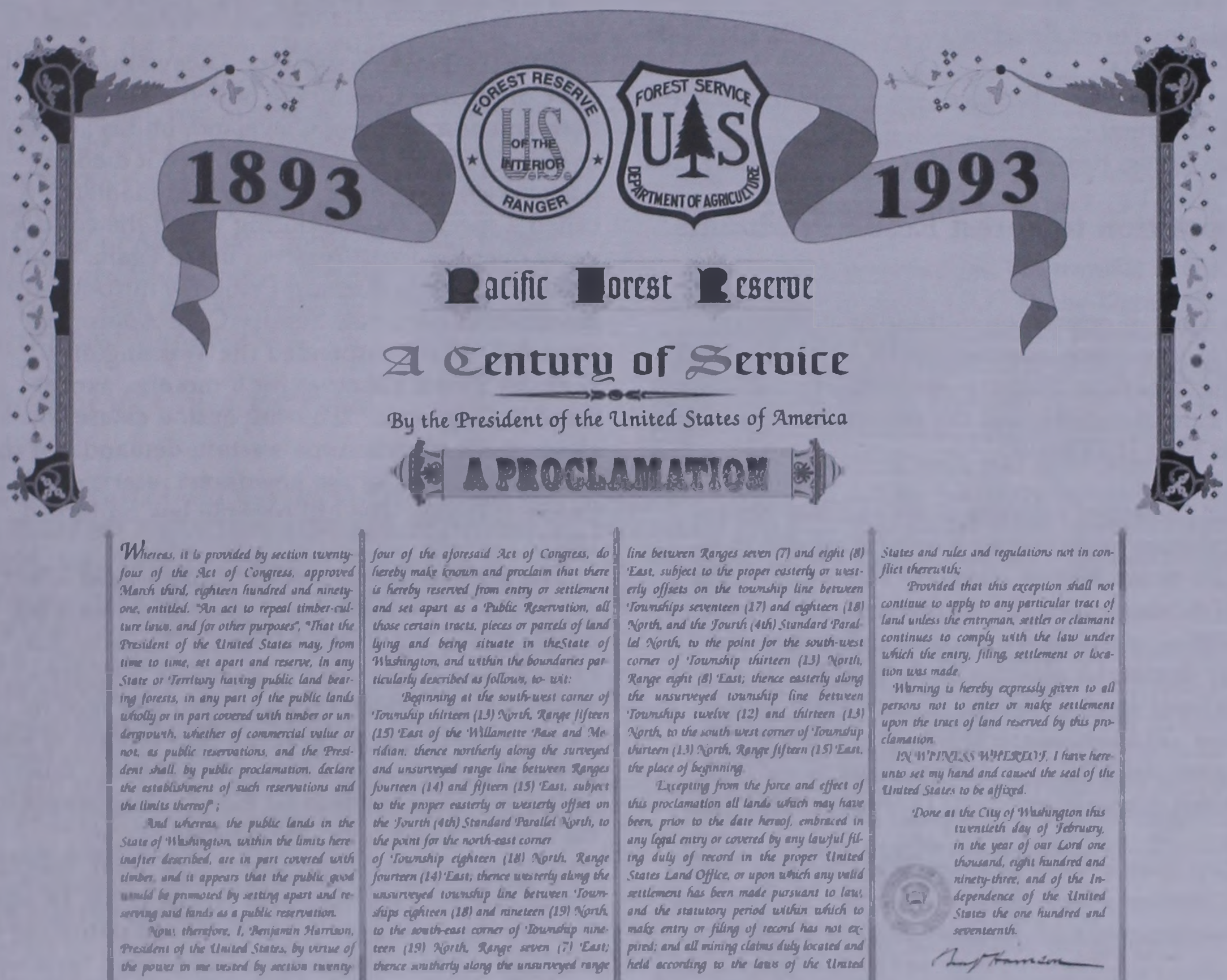
USDA Forest Service

Gifford Pinchot

Next with the Commission I went by train up the great valley of the Willamette, across the Umpqua and Rogue Rivers, and to Ashland...From Ashland in late August, we went by wagon in to Klamath Lake...from Pelican Bay we drove to Crater Lake, through the wonderful forests of the Cascade Range [Forest Reserve], while John Muir and Professor Brewster made the journey short with talk that was worth crossing the continent to hear. Crater Lake seemed to me like a wonder of the world...Meanwhile [Henry S.] Graves was in the Cascades, to see parts of the Reserve we had missed, study the rate of growth of the Douglas-fir, that most wonderful tree, and make himself familiar with the effect of sheep grazing on the forest...From Oregon, I headed for the California Sierras...Tuolomne Meadows...and by wagon past the alkali waters of Mono Lake...[then] down King's River...At Milville, outside the Sierra Forest Reserve, I ran into the gigantic and gigantically wasteful lumbering of the great Sequoias, many of whose trunks were so huge they had to be blown apart before they could be handled. I resented then, and I still resent, the practice of making vine stakes hardly larger than walking sticks out of these greatest of living things (Pinchot 1947:101–103).

The commission then traveled through the San Joaquin Valley to Los Angeles and into the San Bernardino and San Jacinto Mountains. The group went eastward to Flagstaff and the Grand Canyon, then north to Colorado to inspect forest reserves.

The commission's members returned home in October and spent several months writing a report to the President. They disagreed much of the time, but they did agree on the need for a Mt. Rainier National Park and on a number of new and expanded forest reserves. As a result of their report, President Cleveland proclaimed 13 forest reserves (containing 21,278,840 acres) in the West on Feb-


1893
FOREST RESERVE
U.S. OF THE INTERIOR
RANGER
FOREST SERVICE
U S
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
1993
Pacific Forest Reserve
A Century of Service
By the President of the United States of America
A PROCLAMATION
Whereas, it is provided by section twenty-four of the Act of Congress, approved March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, entitled, "An act to repeal timber-culture laws, and for other purposes", "That the President of the United States may, from time to time, set apart and reserve, in any State or Territory having public land bearing forests, in any part of the public lands wholly or in part covered with timber or undergrowth, whether of commercial value or not, as public reservations, and the President shall, by public proclamation, declare the establishment of such reservations and the limits thereof";
And whereas, the public lands in the State of Washington, within the limits hereinafter described, are in part covered with timber, and it appears that the public good would be promoted by setting apart and reserving said lands as a public reservation.
Now, therefore, I, Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested by section twenty-four of the aforesaid Act of Congress, do hereby make known and proclaim that there is hereby reserved from entry or settlement and set apart as a Public Reservation, all those certain tracts, pieces or parcels of land lying and being situate in theState of Washington, and within the boundaries particularly described as follows, to- wit:
Beginning at the south-west corner of Township thirteen (13) North, Range fifteen (15) East of the Willamette Base and Meridian, thence northerly along the surveyed and unsurveyed range line between Ranges fourteen (14) and fifteen (15) East, subject to the proper easterly or westerly offset on the Fourth (4th) Standard Parallel North, to the point for the north-east corner of Township eighteen (18) North, Range fourteen (14) East; thence westerly along the unsurveyed township line between Townships eighteen (18) and nineteen (19) North, to the south-east corner of Township nineteen (19) North, Range seven (7) East; thence southerly along the unsurveyed range line between Ranges seven (7) and eight (8) East, subject to the proper easterly or westerly offsets on the township line between Townships seventeen (17) and eighteen (18) North, and the Fourth (4th) Standard Parallel North, to the point for the south-west corner of Township thirteen (13) North, Range eight (8) East; thence easterly along the unsurveyed township line between Townships twelve (12) and thirteen (13) North, to the south west corner of Township thirteen (13) North, Range fifteen (15) East, the place of beginning.
Excepting from the force and effect of this proclamation all lands which may have been, prior to the date hereof, embraced in any legal entry or covered by any lawful filing duly of record in the proper United States Land Office, or upon which any valid settlement has been made pursuant to law, and the statutory period within which to make entry or filing of record has not expired; and all mining claims duly located and held according to the laws of the United States and rules and regulations not in conflict therewith;
Provided that this exception shall not continue to apply to any particular tract of land unless the entryman, settler or claimant continues to comply with the law under which the entry, filing, settlement or location was made.
Warning is hereby expressly given to all persons not to enter or make settlement upon the tract of land reserved by this proclamation.
IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.
Done at the City of Washington this twentieth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand, eight hundred and ninety-three, and of the Independence of the United States the one hundred and seventeenth.

USDA Forest Service

Document proclaiming one of the Washington's Birthday Forest Reserves

ruary 22, 1897; they were thereafter known as the "Washington's Birthday Forest Reserves" (Pinchot 1947:107–108) and included the following:

Black Hills Forest Reserve (South Dakota)	967,680 acres
Bighorn Forest Reserve (Wyoming)	1,198,080 acres
Teton Forest Reserve (Wyoming)	829,440 acres
Flathead Forest Reserve (Montana)	1,382,400 acres
Lewis and Clarke Forest Reserve (Montana)	2,926,080 acres
Priest River Forest Reserve (Idaho and Washington)	645,120 acres
Bitterroot Forest Reserve (Montana and Idaho)	4,147,200 acres
Washington Forest Reserve (Washington State)	3,594,240 acres

Olympic Forest Reserve (Washington State)	2,188,800 acres
Mt. Rainier Forest Reserve (Washington State)	1,267,200 acres
Stanislaus Forest Reserve (California)	691,200 acres
San Jacinto Forest Reserve (California)	737,280 acres
Uinta Forest Reserve (Utah)	705,280 acres

Opposition to Forest Reserves Mounts

The furor of opposition to these new forest reserves was unprecedented (Steen 1976). The staff of the American Forestry Association's publication *The Forester* summarized the numerous arguments in its May 1898 issue:

> *(a) Unnatural irritation at the idea that Eastern influences are presuming to assert themselves in regard to the Western states. (b) Natural irritation at the manner in which the reservations were made, without consultation with Western Representatives. (c) Reasonable objection to the including of agricultural lands within the bounds of the reservation. (d) Unreasonable objection to the whole forest reservation idea as impeding licentious use of the public domain by everybody (The Forester 1898:96).*

Less than a week after the Washington's birthday proclamations, Senator Clarence D. Clark of Wyoming spoke of his great displeasure at the action: "The Reserves were set aside, he remarked with some fervor, without consultation...with any Senator or Representative in Congress from any of the States affected by the order" (Pinchot 1947:109). He introduced an amendment to the annual Sundry Civil Appropriations Bill to nullify President Cleveland's proclamations.

> *[William M.] Stewart of Nevada, [Richard F.] Pettigrew of South Dakota and [Thomas H.] Carter of Montana, ex-Commissioner of the General Land Office, joined the protest...the Clark Amendment passed the Senate the day it was introduced...Congressman John F. Lacey of Iowa, always a good, true, and active friend of the forest, introduced a substitute [in the House of Representatives] for the Senate amendment which would have given us substantially everything we actually did get at the end of a grueling fight (Pinchot 1947:109–110).*

After the House passed the Lacey amendment, the Conference Committee pulled elements from both amendments, but Cleveland, on his last day in office, refused to sign the bill and it died by pocket veto. President McKinley immediately called a special session during which the controversy over the forest reserves flared again. South Dakota's Senator Richard Pettigrew introduced an amendment on a new Sundry Civil Appropriations Bill, which suspended the Washington's Birthday Forest Reserves for 9 months, except those in California. "The suspension clause was a clever tactic to overcome western demands for the total elimination [of the new forest reserves]" (Steen 1976:35). The bill became law on June 4, 1897.

The act had other provisions that would affect the forest reserves for many years and was often referred to as the Forest Service's "Organic Act." One of the clauses was the so-called "Pettigrew Amendment," which provided that any new reserves would have to meet the twin criteria of watershed protection and timber production, thus setting the basis for Federal forest management for the next 63 years (until the passage of the Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960, then the National Forest Management Act of 1976). In addition, for the first time, the bill allowed patrolling of the reserves by forest rangers rather than no management of the reserves at all, which had been the case from 1891 on.

The logical Federal agency to manage the newly created forest reserves, which were all in the West, was the General Land Office (GLO)—a part of the Department of the Interior. The Organic Act of 1897 placed the forest reserves under the control of the Department of the Interior. During the summer of 1897, the GLO appointed superintendents for each State containing significant forest reserves. Supervisors for each forest reserve and forest rangers to patrol the reserves were not appointed until the spring and summer of 1898 (Bartrum c. 1942 and Langille 1956). Generally, the supervisors and

rangers were only temporary hires—that is, employed during the summer fire season, then laid off following spring or summer. This system remained in effect until 1905.

Gifford Pinchot rather bitterly noted that "unfortunately the Interior Department, with its tradition of political toad-eating and executive incompetence, was incapable of employing the powers the act gave it" (Pinchot 1947:116). This frustration would later set the stage for the transfer (February 1, 1905) of the forest reserves to the Department of Agriculture under Pinchot's leadership. It was also apparent that the *only* trained foresters were employed by the Department of Agriculture—not Interior.

Pinchot as Chief Forester

Gifford Pinchot was appointed Chief of the Department of Agriculture's Division of Forestry in 1898, following the footsteps of Franklin B. Hough, Nathaniel Eggleston, and Bernhard E. Fernow. Soon after Theodore Roosevelt was sworn in as President in 1901, he met with his old friend Gifford Pinchot. Both Pinchot and Roosevelt had "patrician origins and developed into a pair of upper class reformers" (Nash 1967:xii). The two agreed that the role of the government should be to protect the public domain forest lands and to create additional forest reserves.

Roosevelt and Pinchot also agreed that the management of the forest reserves should be transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture (Pinchot 1947; Steen 1976). Not everyone was happy about the prospect of management by "theorists" from the Bureau of Forestry who were "ignorant of the West."

Oregon's Senator Fulton, who had been implicated in the land frauds in Oregon and who felt that the GLO would be friendlier to homesteaders, ranchers, and graziers, remarked:

> *The truth is, that the Bureau is composed of dreamers and theorists, but beyond and outside the domain of their theories and their dreams is the everyday, busy, bustling, throbbing world of human endeavor, where real men are at work producing substantial results. While these chiefs of the Bureau of Forestry sit within their marble walls and theorize and dream of waters conserved, forests and streams protected and preserved through the ages, the lowly pioneer is climbing the mountain side, where he will erect his humble cabin, and within the shadow of the whispering pines and the lofty firs of the western forest engage in laborious work of carving out for himself and his loved ones, a home and dwelling place. It is of him I think and for him I take this stand today (Pinchot 1947:299–300).*

Despite such reservations, the transfer of the forest reserves from the GLO to the Department of Agriculture was accomplished on February 1, 1905, by what is now referred to as the Transfer Act (33 Stat. 628). On February 1, 1905, a Department letter of instruction, probably written by Pinchot or one of his staff, was addressed to Pinchot and signed by Secretary James Wilson, which stated several broad social concerns that have set the Forest Service policy for more than 80 years.

> *In the management of each reserve local questions will be decided upon local grounds; the dominant industry will be considered first, but with as little restriction as possible;...and where conflicting interests must be reconciled the question will always be decided from the standpoint of*the greatest good for the greatest number in the long run *(Pinchot 1947:261) [Emphasis added.]*

Pinchot's guiding philosophy for the forest reserves derived from English philosopher Jeremy Bentham's (1748–1832) writings on utilitarianism (McReynolds 1968; Steen 1976; Williams 1987). Pinchot apparently added to the utilitarianism phrase "the greatest good for the greatest number" the phrase "in the long run" to reflect his concern about forestry and the long time needed to grow trees (Gisborne 1943). Utilitarianism, as applied by Pinchot to government forestry, is the notion that the public forests are considered a moral necessity, yet they need to be measured by their practical usefulness. Both Pinchot and Roosevelt "saw the forest and other natural resources as assets to be used to benefit *all* people, both present and future.

Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Forest Service, seated at his desk

USDA Forest Service

To them the struggle to stop destruction and waste and prevent monopoly was more than an economic issue; it was a moral crusade" (Dana 1956:158).

On July 1, 1905, the Forest Service was established from the earlier Bureau of Forestry. The new name was an attempt to emphasize "service" as the agency objective and remove the taint of "bureaucracy" (Dana 1956). Gifford Pinchot, who was the new Chief (he preferred the title "Forester" as there were too many "Chiefs" in Washington DC) stated: "I never liked the name 'Bureau'...[so when the term] 'Bureau of Forestry' disappeared from the Agricultural Appropriation Bill and 'Forest Service' took its place, no one was more pleased than I" (Pinchot 1947:258).

Pinchot Versus Muir—Sheep Grazing Enflames the Conservation Movement

Gifford Pinchot always believed that the national forests should be managed for regulated public use. His management emphasis was on the general good of society, but with local needs taking priority under certain conditions. This management philosophy helped to win public and congressional support in the States where the national forests were located.

The first significant battles over the use of the forest reserves involved the traditional grazing rights of sheep and cattle owners. These highly vocal and influential owners were prohibited as

early as 1891 from using any of the forest reserves to graze their animals. However, grazing generally continued on the reserves with little or no penalty. "Grazing was...the most important use that had yet been made of the forest reserves, and [it quickly became] the center of bitterest controversy" (Pinchot 1947:177).

Beginning in 1897, the Secretary of the Interior authorized new efforts to enforce the grazing closure (Pinchot 1947; Rakestraw 1955, 1958; Steen 1976). As grazing of sheep and cattle was the dominant use on the public domain prior to the establishment of the forest reserves, there was an outcry from the grazing and livestock associations throughout the West. Frederick Coville, in a letter to Gifford Pinchot, recounted that "so great was the opposition to that [grazing] prohibition, in some states that in the winter of 1896–97, the abolition of Forest Reserves by Congressional action was threatened" (Coville 1935).

In the summer of 1897, Coville was detailed to conduct an investigation and prepare a report on the grazing situation on the Cascade Range Forest Reserve. His report (Coville 1898) concluded that a reasonable amount of grazing "did not injure the forest, but up to that time, no American botanist had advocated even a limited amount of grazing in the forest reserves. John Muir and Dr. C.S. Sargent, leading botanical advocates of the establishment of additional forest reserves, favored prohibition of grazing. Their conception of a forest reserve was substantially our present conception of a national park" (Coville 1935:2).

Although Pinchot's position, as Chief of the Division of Forestry, was essentially in the middle between the sheepmen and Muir, Pinchot came down on the side of restricted or regulated use, a decision that was not especially liked by either group. Basically, the sheep and cattle owners grudgingly accepted the idea of some regulation, especially when it allowed the establishment of separate grazing areas with long-term permits. They did not like the fact that some areas were to be entirely off limits and that trees and recreation should have priority over grazing rights.

John Muir did not like the decision to allow grazing on the reserves—even under regulated conditions (Rakestraw 1955 and 1958). Muir and others were "doctrinaire" in their opposition to sheep grazing in the forest reserves. Muir continued his fight against the "hoofed locusts" in the newspapers and many speeches. His position was that grazing animals, especially sheep, damaged trees, soils, streams, and other natural features in the forest reserves.

Pinchot's decision to allow limited sheep grazing in the forest reserves was the first of many that would anger Muir. Linnie March Wolfe, one of Muir's biographers, wrote that in 1897, while both Muir and Pinchot were in Seattle, Muir read a newspaper statement quoting Pinchot as saying that sheep grazing on the reserves did little harm. Wolfe wrote that Muir met with Pinchot in the lobby of a Seattle hotel with reporters present. Reportedly, Pinchot said that the quote was correct. Muir then angrily stated that they were through with each other. However, there is little known about the incident—or if it even happened, as the Seattle newspaper does not contain a report of the incident and the personal diaries of Muir and Pinchot do not indicate a row—only that they had dinner together (Miller 1992):

> *The specific incident as related is not based on primary evidence, and there are some reasons for doubting the incident [if it actually occurred] was as dramatic, or the break as complete, as is indicated... However [Wolfe believes that] the incident did make the beginning of the break between the two groups [actually, the philosophies of conservation and preservation] (Rakestraw 1958:123–124).*

This was not the first time, nor the last, that Gifford Pinchot and Forest Service policies would tend to split the conservation community over the management of Federal forest lands.

> *Pinchot also helped to retard the [conservation] movement. His vigorous attempts to direct conservation into those limited channels he preferred to*

stress, and his refusal to compromise with those with whom he differed, played a large role in splintering conservation organizations, contributed to conflicts among resource groups and personal bitterness among their leaders, and alienated many who hesitated to become involved in the tense atmosphere surrounding such a controversial figure (Hays 1959:198).

In the summer of 1900, Pinchot, Coville, and several others visited the area around Winslow and Flagstaff, Arizona, to see firsthand the damage that grazing animals were doing to the forest reserves. Although they observed overgrazing and other damage, Pinchot and Coville were convinced that the answer to the grazing difficulties was to "control sheep grazing...not to shut them out. To regulate grazing is usually better than to forbid it altogether. And so it was decided...It also laid the basis, later on, for our grazing policy in the National Forests" (Pinchot 1947:181).

Summary

Gifford Pinchot was a turn-of-the-century progressive man who was imbued with the notion that forestry and conservation were much needed and often ignored aspects of American heritage. Pinchot once declared: "I have been a Governor every now and then, but I am a forester all of the time—have been, and shall be to my dying day." His personal crusade led the Nation to reassess the public lands and the natural resources they contain. Conservation and forestry, in his mind were the same—wise use that would ensure that current and future generations would have access to the wonders of nature and the raw materials they so amply provided. See Part II of this article in the next *History Line*.

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Cornelia Bryce Pinchot (1881–1960)

Carol Severance, Grey Towers National Historic Landmark,
Milford, PA

The following article is based on a presentation to the USDA Forest Service's Management Policy Seminar held at Grey Towers National Historic Landmark, in Milford, Pennsylvania.

Cornelia Bryce Pinchot was a modern woman, one who wished to excel in her feminine role as wife and mother—while sporting a successful career.

My feminism tells me that women can scrub a floor, cook a dinner, paint a picture, charm her husband, swim the Channel, bear a child, and battle for the Lord—all on the same day, so to speak. And be the better for it. Her child too (CBP Manuscript).

This viewpoint evolved over years of activity, first in the Suffrage Movement and later as wife of Gifford Pinchot and advocate for labor reform.

Involvement in the Suffrage Movement

Born in Newport, Rhode Island, in 1881, "Leila" was raised in the wealthy Victorian tradition, much as Gifford Pinchot was, with frequent travel between New York, Europe, and Newport. She was educated in private schools and enjoyed competitive sports—especially hunting, polo, and driving. Her family background provided her with an ability to appreciate her status—while working for public good. Her father, Lloyd Bryce, was an editor for the *North American Review*, paymaster general of New York, and minister to Netherlands at The Hague. Her mother, Edith Cooper was the daughter of one of New York City's mayors and granddaughter of Peter Cooper—inventor, philanthropist, and founder of Cooper Union, a tuition-free college of science and engineering.

Cornelia Bryce Pinchot circa 1900

Grey Towers, USDA Forest Service

In the spring of 1914, a columnist for the *New York Tribune* wrote: "Miss Cornelia Bryce—beautiful, cultured, charming, with the utmost of wealth & position at her command, she chooses as her chief interest, the causes of the working woman."

As a young woman, Cornelia Bryce served on the board of managers of the Bellevue Hospital in New York. Her duties were to visit the hospital, manage the Nurses' Home, and run the social service department. She was also involved in the study of employment in New York City—serving as a chairwoman for the women's committee to establish working rooms for women. After the di-

sastrous Triangle Fire in 1911, Cornelia served as the fire inspector for the Committee of Safety. This committee was responsible for developing better safety laws for women employed in buildings.

I cannot remember just when or how I first became interested in the suffrage movement—but I do know that it came more through my active interest in liberal politics than through the usual resentment against women's political discrimination per se. Many of my family had held elective offices of one kind and another. I remember more than once dining with an ex-president who took me into the smoking room to talk politics with the men after the women had left the table, and it never struck me that this was in any way unusual. I had not learned to think of myself in terms of a downtrodden and disenfranchised female (CBP Manuscript).

I joined actively in the suffrage fight and gave considerable time to it, but I must admit that quite aside from the essential justice of the proposition, I saw women largely as a new group of voters. I worked to help enfranchise them with even more interest in their responsibilities than in their rights.

Cornelia Bryce Pinchot marching in Suffragette Parade in New York City

Library of Congress

Progressive Politics and Gifford Pinchot

Her earliest memory of her political heritage was handing out literature in her father's campaign at the age of six. She met Gifford Pinchot while campaigning for former President Theodore Roosevelt during the Progressive ("Bull Moose") Party Campaign of 1912. She was one of the few persons whose whirlwind energy matched Pinchot's. And in Roosevelt's words, "she had one of the keenest political minds that I have ever known."

With wealth, energy, enthusiasm, political ambition, and the stamp of approval from Roosevelt, Cornelia and Gifford were equally matched, and very much in love. (One of Gifford's biographers said he was as much in love as a man half his age.) They were married at her parents home in August 1914—during the midst of his first senatorial race (she was 33, and he was 49).

She saw her association with the energetic, progressive politician and conservationist as an opportunity and a challenge (Furlow n.d.:327). Together they worked to raise the consciousness of humankind—about its place in the world and its responsibilities. Cornelia traversed the State, speaking to individuals and handing out leaflets in support of her husband. On one speaking tour she gave as many as nine speeches a day. A landslide defeat was not a welcome wedding gift—but did not totally deflate the Pinchots.

And if you are a woman and marry a Pinchot, or if you elect to buck the dominant political machine (and one follows the other as the night the day), you must expect to lose just so often—possibly half the time. But it is a good game. And a little like a love affair, exciting and self-satisfying whether one loses or not (CBP Manuscript).

Commenting on the close interaction between Cornelia's home and the political sphere, a reporter said: "She spends her apparently inexhaustible vitality in a continuous effort to tie up politics more closely to life; to make the two come together, meet, touch...." She believed that through contact provided by political equality, men and women would become more realistic in their relations; that together men and women could know more—"Two minds don't think as one; it would be dreary if true" (Furlow n.d.:13).

Her daughter-in-law later seconded this notion, when she commented on Gifford and Leila's relationship. "Gifford was very proper, moral, conventional—for good. Leila was a natural rebel—loved to upset people by doing outrageous things. They complemented each other. It was a delight to be with them."

After their son, Gifford Bryce Pinchot was born, Cornelia focused considerable attention on education and child labor reform. Her demand that women play a vital role in developing educational policy coincided with her hope that the "Early Victorian theory that females should not be educated" was gone forever. (She herself had not been encouraged to go to college, but to fulfill her social obligation with a coming out party.) She later started an experimental school for children in the Harrisburg, Pennsylvania area, which emphasized life-style learning—such skills as carpentry, cooking, and caring for living things. She also served on the Milford School Board, often commuting from the State capital, for the meetings.

She played a vital role as the Secretary of the Pennsylvania Woman's Suffrage Association. In this position, she used her time, money, and influence to help ratify the 19th Amendment. By 1920, after 52 years of campaigning for suffrage, women could do more than voice their concerns; they could vote for those who represented their interests. Cornelia Pinchot could finally vote for her husband.

Pinchot's 1921 campaign for governor of Pennsylvania was consuming. Starting out with odds of 100 to 1, the Pinchots campaigned vigorously for honesty in government, equal enforcement of laws, and improved economy—"For Cleaning up the Mess in Harrisburg."

Pinchot won the respect of the League of Women Voters during a candidacy luncheon, based on the advice of his wife—"I warned him that women didn't want hot air and generalities." After winning the campaign, Gifford wrote: "It was due to Mrs. Pinchot and the women she organized—far more than to any other single factor that we won (McGeary 1960:285)." The *New York Times* reported that "the greatest fear of the machine leaders was not of the nominee, but of his wife's proved political generalship."

> *Leila was always at the center of what was going on. She was wonderful at drawing people out. A very professional politician. Always had ideas—More skillful of the two in terms of politics. The place [Grey Towers] was always filled with high-level people. She had a wonderful use of language (Interview with Mrs. Gifford B. Pinchot).*

During these initial years in office, the Pinchot platform had no more important plank than the pledge to make Pennsylvania a better place for women and children. Two related bills went before the legislature: working hours for women, and working hours for minors. By 1925, Governor Pinchot established the Bureau of Women and Children. At that time, one out of five women, 16 years and older, was a wage earner—15 percent were married—most were native born (CBP Papers).

Mrs. Pinchot often spoke on behalf of the Governor, to special interest groups and over the radio.

She received several tempting offers, including a full-page advertisement for Ponds' Cream, which her sister-in-law, Ruth Pinchot, encouraged her to consider. Following are a few excerpts from the two women's letters related to the enticing offer.

> This from Ruth Pinchot, in 1924: *Katherine Leckle, a good friend of mine—a publicity agent who has spent her life working for lost causes—is now doing a piece of work for an advertising firm.*

She is getting prominent women to endorse Ponds' Cream, and, of course, for every name she gets, she receives what I imagine is a considerable sum. The other day she asked me if I would ask you to do it—for the following considerations.

First, you will get one thousand dollars on the day you consent to have your name used, which you can contribute to some charity, or start Giffie's nest egg with—or whatever; second, in the interview with you which will be published, she will stress and thereby advertise whatever special piece of work you want stressed, that is, law enforcement, women in industry, etc. The last thing which makes the proposition so interesting, because the campaign which Pond's Extract Company is conducting is done through newspapers and women's magazines reaching literally millions. Katherine tells me that Mrs. Belmont has received any number of letters asking about the National Women's Party for her ad.

It seemed to me a form of advertising that was decidedly worth considering, and I therefore gladly send the suggestion to you. I am enclosing a sample of the spreads already used so that you can see they have a certain amount of dignity.

Four days later, Cornelia replied:

I am thrilled with your offer—and started to sketch out an interview along the lines suggested. One snappy title occurred to me, HOW I RUSHED MY HUSBAND IN TWO YEARS FROM THE BRASS RAIL OF A SALOON INTO THE GOVERNOR'S CHAIR...Soon after my marriage I witnessed, to my dismay, that my husband's erstwhile passion was cooling perceptibly. He never seemed to want to be with me any more. Could it be that I was losing that schoolgirl complexion—that I was gradually becoming saddled with a skin one hates to touch? My friends did not seem to tell me. In my agony and despair, I remembered that the great benefactor of the human race, Mr. Pond, who had sufficiently labored to save just such shattered marriages as mine—and to rebuild the human race. I dashed over to a dry goods store and almost over night the miracle happened. Now my husband spends all his nights at home, and brings with him a train of powerful politicians, with whose help, as you know, he has been landed into his present exalted position. As he leans over me to kiss me at night he breathes, 'Leave but a smear of Pond's upon your lips and I'll not ask for wine.'

Don't you think that should be worth at least $5,000 instead of the paltry $1,000 you offered me?

I wish I could do it, but Gifford has turned tyrant, and has put down his foot—and seriously, I think I better not. Sproul got himself into all sorts of trouble advertising a safety razor.

I suppose when Gifford gets out of office my name will be worth nothing—but if I need a thousand dollars then as much as I do now I will certainly come to you.

In spite of this last phrase, denigrating her own worth, Cornelia began to gain her own political prowess during these years. In 1928, she sought the Republican nomination for the United States congressional seat from the 15th District of Pennsylvania.

I am not one of those who believe that women have any better contribution to make politically than have the men; it is not a question of better or worse, but of all together lending a hand. And I believe this combination of housewife and politician will render a real service to the state.

The tone of the Pinchots' campaigns during the 1920's and 1930's (she ran twice more for Congress, losing all three elections) focused on human resources: Labor reform, education, and honest control of the machine bosses.

The Human Side of Conservation

Gifford Pinchot's definition of conservation—"the wise use of natural resources for the greatest good, by the greatest number in the long run"—was being altered during those years. Adding a human component—the conditions of workers, education

for the betterment of society, and securing resources for international peace, Pinchot began to believe that the principles of conservation must go beyond scientific management of natural resources—to include human resources as well. In a speech he wrote several years later, he stressed:

> *The conservation problem is not concerned only with the natural resources of the earth. Rightly understood, it includes also the relation of these resources and of their scarcity or abundance to the wretchedness or prosperity, the weakness or strength of peoples, their leaning towards war or towards peace, and their numbers and distribution over the earth (CBP Papers, Box 43).*

This was in large measure due to Cornelia's influence. She believed "a man's view about conservation might well be taken as the acid test to determine his attitude towards public questions of all sorts" (Furlow n.d.:340–41). She was also sensitive to the concerns of those who wanted their share of the "public good." During Gifford's second gubernatorial victory in 1930, he concluded:

> *I think you'll agree that the strongest weapon I had was Cornelia Bryce Pinchot, whose work against sweats is known throughout the U.S. She is this administration's best contribution to the cause of workers on farm or factory, mill or mine.*

A 1933 telegram from Cornelia to the Hosiery Workers Union read: "Regret impossible to be with you. Tied up here with the Sweatshop Committee and then going to Pittsburgh to help the steelworkers organize."

During these early years of the Great Depression, she supported her husband's efforts to secure funding relief from the Federal Government. While serving on the Republican Women's Council, she asked the women to join Gifford's plea to President Hoover for Federal funds to the States.

She also corresponded with Eleanor Roosevelt and held a dinner in Harrisburg in her honor, shortly before Mrs. Roosevelt became the First Lady. Mrs. Pinchot wanted to demonstrate the quality and value of the foodstuffs provided for Pennsylvania's needy through the Community Market Plan, which operated in three cities across the State. She succeeded in developing an interesting menu to feed 50 people, for a total cost of 5½ cents per person. The following day, Mrs. Roosevelt attended the Governor's conference on child health.

Cornelia was a strong supporter of the people's rights throughout the course of President Franklin Roosevelt's "New Deal" programs, which effectively combined human and natural resource programs. In 1934, she tangled with the Administrator of the National Recovery Administration, writing:

> *I recommend a definite change of policy...your present plan of allowing the steel trust, the automobile magnates, and big business generally to flout the government [is] un-American, utterly wrong, and must inevitably lead to the failure of the NRA.*

She also supported her husband's urging of President Roosevelt to call an international conference that would outline a strategy for world peace, based on cooperative efforts among nations to conserve human and natural resources. (FDR received the plea by noting that Pinchot was a "wild man—an individual who could not be controlled.")

At the end of Pinchot's second term as governor, he became ill with shingles. Cornelia managed much of the business at the governor's mansion for almost 3 months. In his final message to the general assembly, the governor voiced special thanks to his wife, "whose advice in this emergency was indispensable. Indeed, throughout both my terms Mrs. Pinchot's assistance in dealing with the human side of government has been invaluable. In her the people of the Commonwealth have an ally impossible to duplicate or replace" (McGeary, 1960:385–386).

In 1943, Cornelia was a founding member of the Committee of 100. This committee was dedicated to the creation of an America of justice and equality for our African American fellow citizens. Within 7 years, the committee had increased the

legal defense and education fund budget for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People by $120,000.

After World War II, Mrs. Pinchot organized an exhibition at the Library of Congress, entitled "Warsaw Lives Again." The year following Gifford's death she traveled to Greece. At that time, Greece was having a terrible time; refugees were everywhere. Cornelia reported the conditions of the troubled country to President Truman. People took her quite seriously—all doors were open to her and what she had to say.

In 1949, 3 years after Gifford's death, Cornelia Bryce Pinchot attended the United Nations Scientific Conference on Conservation and the Utilization of Resources—the conference Gifford had envisioned years earlier. Scientists and interested observers from around the world were invited to share their collective wisdom. During this conference she called on the delegates to regain her husband's broad conservation ideal, stating:

> *Every true conservationist knows that man himself is a natural resource; that without man's energy, the energy of coal, of electricity, of oil, or atomic fission itself is inert and meaningless. To sidestep the human and political implications of conservation, to deal with it exclusively in terms of materials, matter and technical processes, is to take a long step backward from where we stood a generation ago (CBP Manuscript).*

On October 15, 1949, she spoke at the dedication of the Gifford Pinchot National Forest (a ceremony renaming the Columbia National Forest in Washington State to honor Gifford Pinchot), stating:

> *Today this Service is still outstanding in its high morale, its devotion to duty, its creative and imaginative leadership. It sets a pace that many government departments might well be advised to follow (Cornelia Pinchot 1950).*

When the Forest Service celebrated its 50th anniversary, a few years later, she created a series of radio broadcasts for the occasion.

Reflections on Her Life

In 1935, Cornelia Bryce Pinchot began writing her memoirs—details of her childhood, wealthy upbringing, series of suitors, interests in architecture, antiques, and progressive struggles against political bosses. She had sailed the South Seas, ridden a dromedary in Egypt, stalled in a plane over London, been stoned by angry mobs while picketing the working conditions in textile mills. Writing in her manuscript, she claimed:

> *At fifty, life is never stale, dull, and unprofitable to me. On the contrary, it is exciting, constantly opening out fresh vistas of adventure and interest. The fact that these interests are outside of myself and beyond my immediate personal life certainly is an*

Library of Congress

Cornelia Bryce Pinchot and Gifford hunted, fished, and camped together

asset—and perhaps what makes a political life so satisfactory to me (CBP Manuscript).

The Pinchots life together was joined with crusading zeal. They fostered causes that were international, interracial, interparty. They shared a home together where "love was vivid, and vital. Not only romantic love...but the real steady everyday kind of love between husband and wife. Love of laughter and fun, love of work, love of life." They hunted, fished, and camped together. They shared the expenses for their political campaigns and the upkeep of Grey Towers. Gifford financed the farming and automobile maintenance; Cornelia paid for the mansion's alterations and landscape design. They are remembered by many across the country for their warmth and hospitality as well as their dynamic energy.

Reflecting on her life as a modern woman for an article in *The Nation* magazine, Cornelia wrote:

Some years ago I marked down, pursued, and captured one of the few really big men I have ever known—one who never turned his back but marched breast forward—and lived happily ever after (Showalter 1978).

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Amos R. E. Pinchot
Cornelia Bryce Pinchot
Gifford Pinchot ❑

The Origin of the Forest Service Badge

Adapted from Frank Harmon's 1980 Article "What Should Foresters Wear?" in the *Journal of Forest History*

Even before the forest reserves were transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture, Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Bureau of Forestry, began thinking about the need for a unique badge of authority for his agency's employees. When the shift finally took place in 1905—and the Bureau was designated as the Forest Service in the summer of the same year—Pinchot set about at once to get a new official badge (the earlier General Land Office used a nickel-plated round badge) for their forest rangers.

For the creation of the badge, Pinchot announced a contest among Washington Office employees. A highly varied collection of tree-related designs resulted, including scrolls, leaves, and maple seeds. Although the judges appreciated the artistic merits of these designs, they were dissatisfied because none of the designs included generally recognized symbols of authority. The group agreed that the vast responsibilities of the new Forest Service required such an authority symbol to help ensure public recognition of the agency and respect for its officers and their authority, both in Washington, DC, and in the field. A reliable symbol was needed especially for those field employees charged with applying and enforcing Federal laws and regulations, many of them new employees, in the face of an often suspicious and hostile local populace.

USDA Forest Service

Original General Land Office Badge 1897–1905 and first Forest Service Badge 1905–1915

Edward T. Allen, one of the contest judges, strongly believed that a conventional shield was the best authority symbol. As it turned out, he and an associate, William C. Hodge, Jr. (who, like Allen, worked both in the Washington Office and in California between 1904 and 1906), came up with the design that became the official badge. The two men were together in the spring of 1905, perhaps in Allen's office or at a railroad depot in Missoula, Montana. Allen, attracted by the type of shield used by the Union Pacific Railroad, began tracing its outline (from a Union Pacific timetable) on a sheet of paper. He inserted the large letters "U" and "S" halfway from the top to the bottom of the shield, leaving a space between them. Hodge, looking on, was inspired to sketch a fir tree on a sheet of "roll-your-own" cigarette paper he took from his pocket. He then laid this between the U and S. The two men then quickly wrote "FOREST SERVICE" across the top and "DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE" across the bottom. The placement of the two names was probably dictated by available spaces. Whether this design had any influence on the soon-to-develop, and still widely

used, but unofficial expression "U.S. Forest Service" is debatable. In any case, Pinchot and his assistant, Overton Price, were pleased with the design and called off a planned second contest.

A large, bronze, slightly convex badge with this design was first issued to all field officers by July 1, 1905. Less than 2 years later, Pinchot issued an order on the wearing of the badge: "Hereafter the badge will be worn only by officers of the Washington Office when on inspection or administrative duty on the National Forests, by Inspectors, and by Supervisors, Rangers, and Guards and other officers assigned to administrative duty under the Supervisors."

The present bronze badge, first issued in 1915, is smaller than the original. Badges for fire guards were nickel-plated bronze badges made with "FOREST GUARD" across the top, "U.S." on the left of the tree and "F.S." on the right, and "DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE" on the bottom. Another forest guard badge type was made with "FOREST GUARD" across the top, "U.S." left of the tree, "D.A" on the right, and "FOREST SERVICE" at the bottom. Neither of the fire or forest guard badges had a raised edge around the border of the badge.

Beginning around 1922, a smaller bronze badge was authorized for uniform wear. This badge was the same design as the larger badge, but only an

Pete Wingle

Collage of Forest Service badges through the years

USDA Forest Service

Forest Service Badges through the years

inch high. It was used on dress uniforms until about 1972.

A flat bronze badge was issued recently. Other than three size variations and two forest guard variations, the only change was made in 1938, when Chief F.A. Silcox approved a revision of the standard Forest Service shield on which the tree image and the "U" and "S" were longer than the original 1905 version. This is evident on both the badges and Forest Service shields everywhere.

Since the early 1960's, a cloth shoulder patch has been authorized to be worn on the left shoulder of the official uniform shirt and jacket. The first such patch, issued in 1962, was flat on the bottom and sides, but rounded over the top. A curved overhead bar was added to designate which national forest or other office the wearer was associated with.

The current Forest Service shield patch was authorized in 1974. The new patch is the same shape as the badge, with the shield outlined in yellow, and with the words and tree in yellow against a green background.

There are several variations as follows:

- A smaller, 2-inch Forest Service flat-bottom patch, sometimes called the women's patch, which is identical to the larger 4-inch patch

USDA Forest Service

The recently issued flat bronze badge

- A smaller, 2-inch Forest Service shield patch, sometimes called the women's patch, which is identical to the 4-inch patch, except that the word 'DEPARTMENT" is abbreviated to "DEPT" and the word "AGRICULTURE" is abbreviated to "AGRIC"
- A color variation—that of the Forest Service patch of the winter snow ranger uniforms—orange border with black letters and tree on a white background
- Another snow ranger patch with a slightly smaller black-bordered shield with a larger orange shield outline

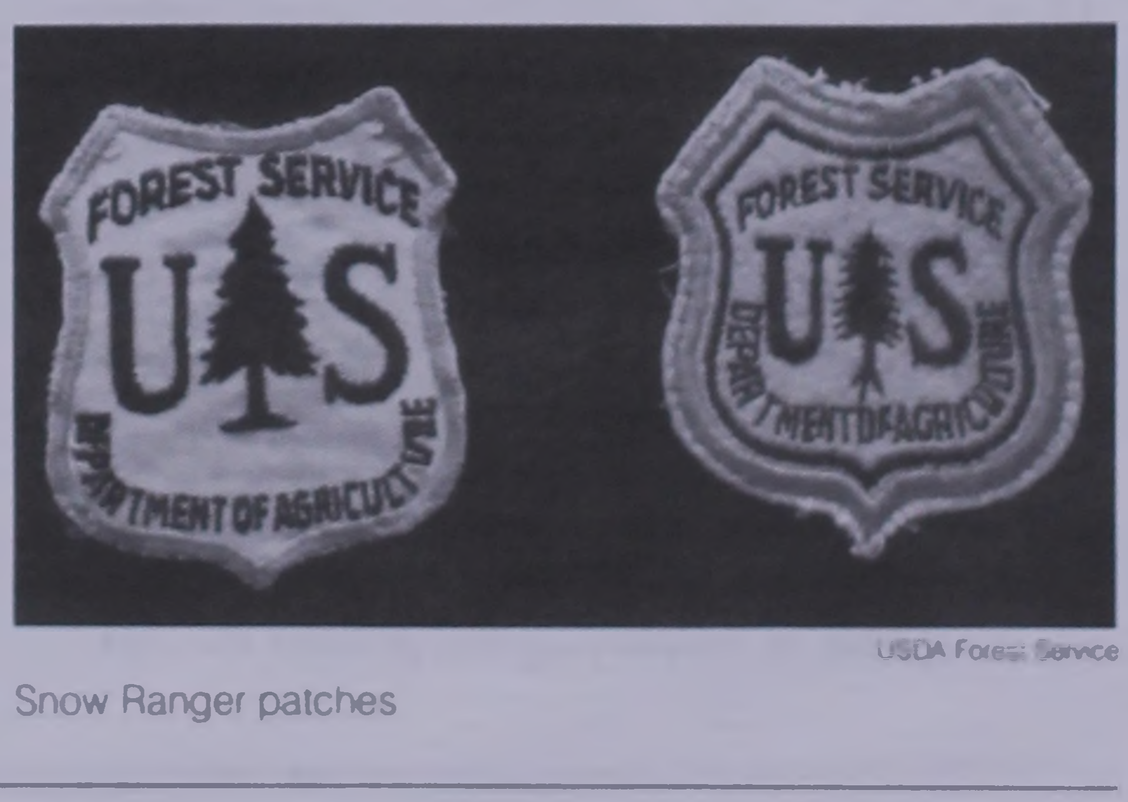
The snow ranger patches were apparently worn from the 1960's to the 1970's. There were several reasons for the use of this unusual patch: The patch could be worn on the outside of heavy winter clothing (the bronze badge would be worn underneath layers), it was highly visible against a dark green jacket, and if the ranger fell in the snow, the bronze badge would not be lost or cause injury to the ranger." ❑

USDA Forest Service

The first patch was flat on the bottom and sides but rounded over the top—a curved overhead bar was added to designate which administrative unit the wearer was associated with. The smaller patch is sometimes called the women's patch.

USDA Forest Service

The current Forest Service shield patch was authorized in 1974. It is the same shape as the badge, with the words, tree, and outline of the patch in yellow against a green background.



USDA Forest Service

Snow Ranger patches

General Land Office Rangers and Early Forest Service Ranger Exams

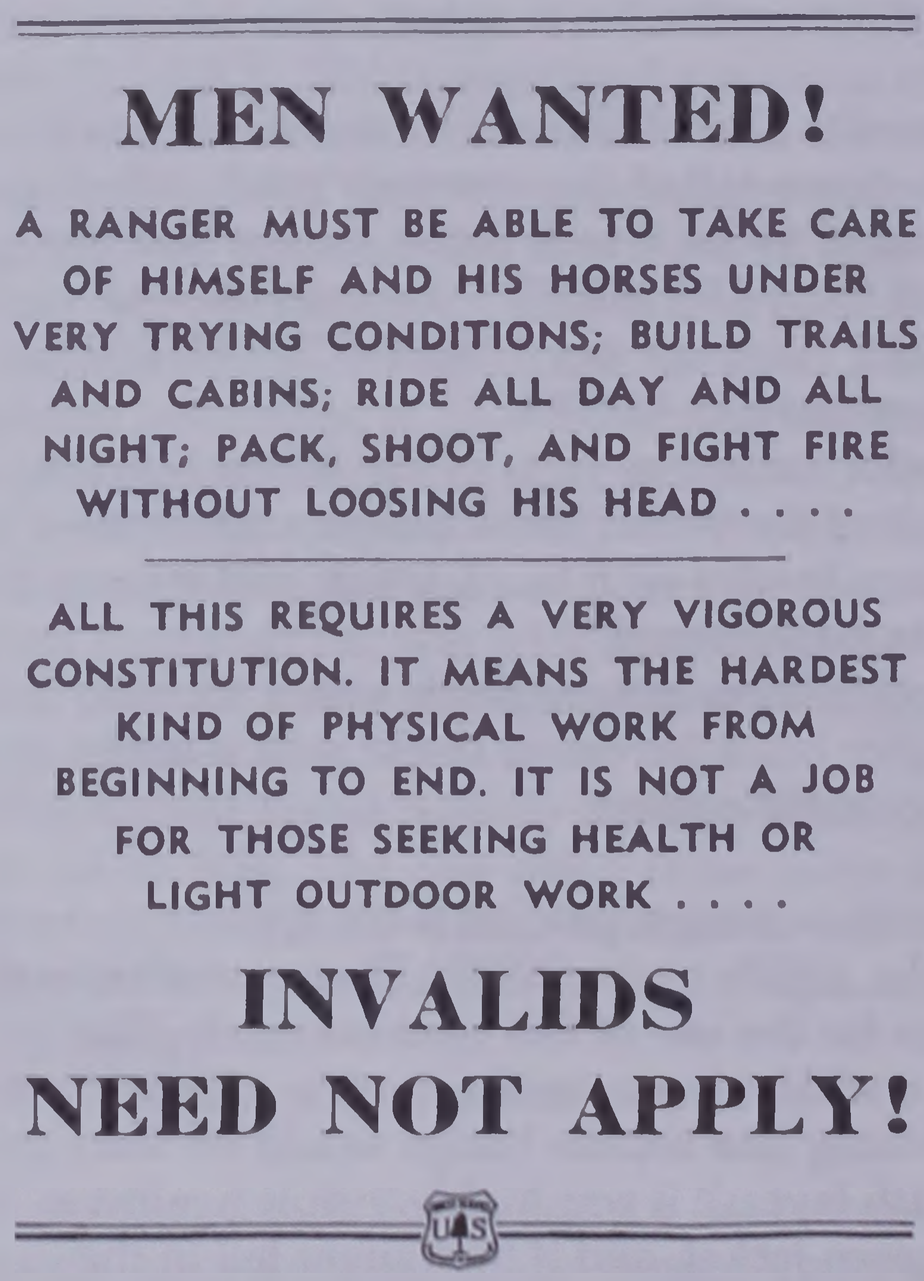
Jerry Williams, Historian and Regional Sociologist,
Pacific Northwest Region

After the passage of the Organic Act of 1897, the General Land Office (GLO) established a forestry unit—later called Division "R"—to administer the new forest reserves. First appointed were State Superintendents in the summer months of 1898; more men were politically appointed to the position of summer forest ranger, usually to fight fires. The GLO appointments were made by the GLO State Superintendent, GLO in Washington, DC, or a U.S. Senator—who was appointed by the State legislature. There were great temptations and opportunities for political favoritism and graft in these appointments, with the result that many of the GLO rangers were less than competent in managing the land and resources.

For seven summers, the forest resources were administered by the rangers hired for the fire season by the GLO (now the Bureau of Land Management).

There are many stories of these early GLO rangers not doing the jobs they were assigned to do. Some went home every day to work their farms or businesses. Others were unwilling or unable to undergo the rigors of living in the wilderness for long periods of time. Many others simply did not have any knowledge of what they were doing. In a few cases, GLO rangers were actively involved in land frauds committed by their friends—by accepting money to assist "homesteaders" in obtaining forest land, which was immediately sold to speculators or timber companies. Gifford Pinchot rather bitterly noted that "unfortunately the Interior Department with its tradition of political toad eating and executive incompetence, was incapable of employing the powers the Act gave it." This frustration would later set the stage for the February 1, 1905, transfer of the forest reserves to the Department of Agriculture.

Management control of the forest reserves (later called national forests) was also transferred from the Department of the Interior's General Land Office to the Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Forestry. On July 1, 1905, the USDA Forest Service name came into being. Gifford Pinchot, the first Chief of the agency, was intent on build-



MEN WANTED!

A RANGER MUST BE ABLE TO TAKE CARE OF HIMSELF AND HIS HORSES UNDER VERY TRYING CONDITIONS; BUILD TRAILS AND CABINS; RIDE ALL DAY AND ALL NIGHT; PACK, SHOOT, AND FIGHT FIRE WITHOUT LOOSING HIS HEAD . . . .

ALL THIS REQUIRES A VERY VIGOROUS CONSTITUTION. IT MEANS THE HARDEST KIND OF PHYSICAL WORK FROM BEGINNING TO END. IT IS NOT A JOB FOR THOSE SEEKING HEALTH OR LIGHT OUTDOOR WORK . . . .

INVALIDS NEED NOT APPLY!

USDA Forest Service Ranger Recruitment Poster c. 1905.

ing a force of forest rangers who were trained in or had a good knowledge of practical forestry.

Pinchot considered the words on the "invalids need not apply" poster to be "a slap at the Land Office...and certainly well deserved." He was determined to transform the negative stigma of the General Land Office's reign from 1897 through 1905 to a positive image of professional Forest Service employees, dedicated to "scientific forestry" and public service.

With a few exceptions, the GLO rangers quit government service when the administration of the forest reserves was turned over to the Forest Service. The GLO rangers who did transfer to the new agency were very practical and experienced men who helped form a cadre of highly talented rangers.

Beginning in the summer of 1905, the new Forest Service required that applicants for the forest ranger position (now under Civil Service rules) take practical written and field examinations (hence the poster circa 1905). The written test, although not highly technical, was quite challenging. Questions determined the applicant's knowledge of basic ranching and livestock, forest conditions, lumbering, surveying, mapping, cabin construction, and so on. The field examination, held outdoors, was also quite basic. It required that the applicant demonstrate such practical skills as how to use an ax; saddle a horse, ride at a trot, and gallop; pack a horse or mule; "throw" a diamond hitch; accurately pace the distance around a measured course and compute the area in acres; and take bearings with a compass and follow a straight line. In the early years of the field examination, the applicants were also required to bring a rifle and pistol along with them and to shoot accurately at a target. At some ranger examinations, the applicants were required to cook a meal, then eat it!

The applicants, as well as the rangers themselves, were not furnished with equipment, horses, or pack animals—they were required to have them for the test and for work, at their own expense. The pay was $60 per month.

The forest ranger job changed little for several decades, with the practical forester serving the agency well. University-trained foresters, or "technical foresters," began to enter the agency after 1910, coming from the few colleges and universities offering degrees in forestry. By the 1920's, job specialization was becoming common. After World War II, the changing needs of society prompted the agency to open the national forests to timber harvesting, which meant that the role of the general, practical forester was outdated—university-trained specialists would take this agency into a new era. Today, agency employees are no longer required to take practical tests for employment and university-trained specialists are everywhere; but practical experience still "counts" highly in the Forest Service.

Thus the phrase, now long outdated, "Invalids Need Not Apply" helped to professionalize the new Forest Service in the early days." ❑

Forest Service Reorganization 1908

From the Files—Submitted by David Gillio, Southwestern Region

When the Forest Service opened the first Regional offices, they were designed to the same small scale as the national forest staffs over which they had oversight. A handful of specialists and clerks was sufficient to handle the modest paperwork requirements of the day. The following paragraphs are excerpted from a letter about Forest Service reorganization that was sent to forest supervisors on November 5, 1908:

As you are probably aware, the organization of District Offices [the original name for Regional Offices] is the culmination of a plan toward which the Service has been working steadily. It will increase the usefulness of your Forest and of all others by reducing delay, and by bringing you and your immediate superior officers into closer touch. It will also relieve the Washington Office of the heavy burden of routine which it now carries, and enable each of us here to spend more time in field work on the Forests. This creation of the District Offices means that the administrative officers from Washington will see more of the field men than they have, and not less, and it will unquestionably increase the spirit and efficiency of the whole Service.

In establishing the District Offices, to whose officers you will hereafter be directly responsible, I count upon them for the loyalty and efficiency which have been characteristic of National Forest officers under the present organization.

Very sincerely yours,

(Signed) GIFFORD PINCHOT
Forester ❑

Wolf Pinnacle Fire Tower—I Lived It

Otto Whittington as told to Carolyn Callahan, Ouachita National Forest

The year was 1933. I was 13 years old and was struggling, watching my mother battle crippling illness. I decided to leave home thinking that there would be one less mouth to feed (there would still be three children left at home) and possibly I could find work to contribute in some small way.

At this point, I had only an eighth grade education. My education soon expanded as I rode the rails across the South. The hobo life oftentimes left me quite cold and hungry. Because of this, I found shelter and warmth in public libraries. Here, I discovered my love for reading and books. This fact alone, probably altered my life as I began to educate myself.

I took work anywhere, anyplace I could find it. Four years later and somewhere along the way, I heard about the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). What really perked up my ears were the wages—$30 per month! My thinking was that I could keep $5 and send the rest home to help my family.

I hitchhiked to Danville, Arkansas, to join the Eagleton CCC 747 Company. This CCC is located on the Ouachita National Forest. We began to build mountain fire trails and fight forest fires. We cleaned up and constructed camp and picnic areas for public use. We were issued khaki uniforms and denim work clothes, and the food served was nourishing and quite good. I had no complaints.

One of the largest fires I fought was on the Winding Stair Mountain across the Oklahoma line. This mountain had very steep cliffs and few access roads. To get to a point where a fire break could be built and a backfire set, we had to climb up steep terrain with all our equipment on our backs. We stayed on the fire line until complete exhaustion set in. On the third night, a heavy rain fell and nature assisted us in our efforts. The next morning, we climbed down the mountain to wait for trucks bringing us hot coffee. I still remember how glad we were to see them arrive.

One day I was called to the camp office by a forester named Thorsen. As my supervisor, he told me, he was impressed with my intelligence and common sense. He asked if I would be interested in operating a lookout tower and becoming a fire lookout. I jumped at the chance thinking it might lead to a promotion. I was sent to the Forest Service Headquarters in Mena, Arkansas, where I was given a 3-day course in the fundamentals of reading fire locating equipment, analyzing types of fires from a distance, making proper weather reports, and checking and maintaining the battery-operated phone and lines.

Then, I was taken to Wolf Pinnacle—20 miles on a dirt highway east of Mena—then on up a 5-mile road that had been cut with picks and shovels—a road only a truck could climb.

Wolf Pinnacle was a sheer rock pinnacle jutting out at an angle about 50 feet above the timber line. The station consisted of a 64-foot tower of criss-crossing 4-inch angle irons. Narrow 8-foot steel ladders went from platform to platform, up to the top. Perched on the top was a 6- by 6-foot steel cabin with a push-up trap door for an entrance. The cabin had windows from 4 feet off the floor to the top, which could be opened horizontally for cross breezes. There was barely enough room in the cabin to walk around the large firefinder in the center. The firefinder was covered with a complete map of the area including the locations of other towers, which were to be called for cross checks on smoke locations. A phone was kept in a cabinet under the firefinder.

Because of its propensity for attracting lightning, the steel tower was grounded with half-inch copper cables that went down each leg deep into the ground.

My living quarters consisted of a 12- by 15-foot frame cabin at the foot of the tower. The cabin had only one room with two single beds, a desk, two chairs, a kerosene cook stove, and a wood-burning heater—with a phone on the wall near the desk. The Forest Service provided the phone line across miles of mountains and allowed farms and villages along the line to hook up and use the line in exchange for aid in maintaining the line and reporting fires. The phone was the old hand-crank type and my ring was two longs and one short.

There was a toolshed in back of the cabin with fire-fighting tools, saws, and shovels. Down the pinnacle in back of the tool shed was a steep foot-trail that went down to a spring flowing from under a cliff. This is where I shared the water with the mountain animals. I only visited there at night as I was stationed in the tower from daylight to dark. I carried a 5-gallon can on my back and two 1-gallon canteens hung from my shoulders. With a lantern to light my way, I would head down the steep trail. The light warned the animals I was coming, and I could see their eyes reflected as they scurried out of my path and away from the spring. The largest of these were bears.

The daily routine was always the same: On the tower at daylight; call Eagle Gap Ranger Station at 9 o'clock to give the weather report; report to the ranger stations on weather conditions again at 4:00; and down to my cabin at dark. Then, I chopped wood by lantern light.

Carolyn Callahan

Present-day photo of Otto Whittington

This station had been set up to be a two-person operation but because of the lack of funding, it had been assigned to the CCC for management. Two men together could have easily broken the monotony—shared the cooking and other tasks. In my second week on Wolf Pinnacle, another man from the camp was sent up to work with me. After 2 weeks he was talking to himself and getting "mountain happy" so he returned to the CCC. I was asked if I could handle the tower by myself and I assured the ranger that I could.

Because the station had been designated a two-man tower, I had a weekly grocery allowance for two. My order was called in on Friday and the groceries were delivered on Saturday by Forest Service truck. I ate very well.

Although I had a visitor's registration book, because of the remote access to the lookout, I never received a visitor. The only persons I saw were the driver of the truck and Ranger Taylor, who occasionally made an inspection trip. The truck driver kept me supplied with old magazines, which I enjoyed by a kerosene Aladdin lamp at night. I was not allowed to have reading material in the tower.

I was only allowed to leave the tower when there was at least an inch of rain across the entire viewing area. This happened only once in 9 months, and I took advantage of it when it did occur. I went down the mountain about 5 miles to a whiskey still where I bought a gallon of whiskey beer for 50 cents. The bootleggers were the closest people to the tower. The closest town was 20 miles, and I had no transportation.

While doing my work in the tower, I made a list of permanent smokes on different bearings that I would check daily. These consisted of small sawmills, lumber kilns, and whiskey stills. I soon could distinguish the stills easily. During the day a very faint trickle of smoke floated up, but about sundown, the smoke started getting heavy as they fired up for their nightly runs. I was advised that in the event some law enforcement officers or Government revenuers (Treasury Agents) came by and

inquired about the smokes, I should tell them they were all sawmills or kilns.

The Forest Service did not bother the moonshiners and in exchange the moonshiners cooperated to help keep forest fires down. Forest fires were threats to the moonshiners—fires would bring firefighters in and reveal their still operations.

The ranger on duty before Taylor had gotten civic minded and decided to help the Government revenuers. This was a dumb move on his part, as one night while driving down a mountain road in his green pickup, he came upon a large tree limb that had supposedly fallen across the road. He got out of his pickup, walked up to remove the limb, and was blown away with shotgun blasts.

Ranger Taylor said that we were charged with protecting the forest and we could do a better job if we left other things alone. Taylor got mad as hell at the sheriff's office when I told him I had received a call asking me to let the sheriff know if two men who were supposedly lost came by. The sheriff said the men had been lost for several days and might approach the tower looking for food. Taylor said that the sheriff was trying to get me killed. He said the two men had escaped from a jail in Ft. Worth, Texas, and were last spotted in the Mena area of the Ouachita Forest. The men were Hamilton and Underhill, former members of "Pretty Boy" Floyd's gang and both were armed and dangerous.

My only recreation during the boring days of looking for smoke was eavesdropping on the Forest Service phone line that stretched for miles across the mountains. My phone line started in Dick Huddleston's general store in Waters, Arkansas. This was the store and town made famous in the "Lum and Abner" radio show. On the show, Waters was called "Pine Ridge," and it became so famous the people had the town's name officially changed to Pine Ridge.

Listening to young boys and girls talking and giggling on the line only made my lonely station more isolated. Usually I am considerate of my fellow man and do not intrude. Sometimes when I felt so isolated and wanted to talk with anyone, I would interrupt a romantic conversation by ringing the line and stating I needed it for Forest Service business. I would then call a good friend I had never met, Demp Rose, who had served on Buck Knob tower for over 14 years. Buck Knob was approximately 6 miles away on the map, but not in my sight because of a taller mountain between it and Wolf Pinnacle.

Cooking above the timberline on a kerosene stove is an art—as food takes much longer to cook. One day Ranger Taylor came up to put a new map on my firefinder. I had put on a pot of beans before daylight so I asked him to have lunch with me. Although the beans had been cooking for over 7 hours, they rattled when I dipped them out on the plates. I learned that in the thin air above the timber line, beans must be soaked and then still need hours to cook.

I became a nudist in the summertime to cut down on carrying water up the mountain trail to wash clothes. I could see any vehicle coming up the mountain about 2 miles away. And being above timberline, I could see anyone on foot about a mile away. One day, I was looking in the opposite direction when Forester Thorsen decided to make an unexpected visit and he got within a mile of the pinnacle before I spotted him. I climbed down the ladder as fast as possible and slipped on some pants just as he drove up to the door. He laughed when I came out and said I looked naked coming down the ladder, but he knew of no Forest Service regulation against nude tower operators. From then on I kept pants in the tower.

The most lonesome day on the mountain was Christmas 1937. My only link with the rest of the world was a single galvanized wire across miles of forest. On Christmas Eve, I received a call on the old handcrank phone from the Ranger Station inquiring about my food supply. My only rations were a half pound of Vienna sausages and a box of crackers. They advised me that if the truck could not make it in the day after Christmas, they would send men on foot with backpacks filled with rations. I decided to eat my Vienna sausage and crackers about midafternoon on Christmas Day. That night looking out across the icy forest, I could see lights of small villages in the distant valleys. Suddenly I was struck with the most intense feelings of hunger and loneliness. I could envision the

houses full of warm family festivities, with tables filled with good food. The next day, in the middle of the afternoon, I saw the Forest Service truck with chains and ice tires slowly coming up the road out of the timberline. Those men were more welcome than Santa Claus.

Spring brought another type of problem and increased the threat of fires on the forest. This part of the country was prone to spring lightning and electrical storms. It became apparent why my tower was grounded with half-inch copper cables on all four legs. The tower stood out like a large lightning rod and drew tremendous bolts during an electrical storm. You could smell the sulphur odor when a bolt hit the tower. The cab would appear to be a ball of fire, and fire streaks would shoot down all four legs into the ground. I had to try and keep up with the bolts as they hit across the forest, take bearings, and make notes to check them after the storm.

June 24 was my 18th birthday. Forester Thorsen had been suggesting that I take the Forest Service examination and join the Forest Service on a permanent basis. But when I told him my schooling ended at the ninth grade, he suggested I go back to school before trying for employment. My joining the CCC had helped my family with their financial problems and they had moved to Sweetwater, Texas, while I was on Wolf Pinnacle. Dad had a job and had been writing me to come home and go back to school. I decided this would be best and notified Ranger Taylor that I was quitting Wolf Pinnacle. Thorsen brought up a relief man and drove me to Mena where I caught a bus for Sweetwater. Coming into Sweetwater was much different than the last time I had come into town...when I just dropped off a freight train. This time I knew I was proud of what I had done.

The tower man is now a relic of the past—as are the towers. The Forest Service patrols the forests with low-flying spotter planes and can send in tanker planes, which make fighting fires much more effective than in my day.

My life has taken many turns. Briefly: I've been a lumberjack, sawmill worker, circus roustabout, horse soldier, infantry soldier in the Philippines; Battle of Bataan, Fall of Bataan, Death March, held prisoner in Kokura. (After the war I learned the second bomb's primary target was Kokura with a secondary target of Nagasaki. The day was overcast and finding no breaks in the cloud cover, the crew dropped the bomb on Nagasaki instead.)

I became a university honors graduate with no high school education and eventually became an attorney. I practiced law in Virginia, California, and Texas. I married a wonderful lady, Maxine, and this year we will celebrate our 53rd wedding anniversary. We have one son and two grandchildren. I am retired now and enjoy my life with my family. We live now in Houston, Texas, but I will always remember my life and experiences in Arkansas.

I have gone back and revisited different places of my life. Fifty-eight years later I went back to the Wolf Pinnacle area. Last summer I met with Freddie Woodral of the Poteau Ranger District and Carolyn Callahan from the Supervisor's Office in Hot Springs. I shared my story with them. My cousin, Perry Wiseman, and I rented a plane and flew over the area that used to be my home...the tower has since been dismantled but the mountain is there as beautiful and majestic as ever.

OTTO WHITTINGTON,
as told to Carolyn Callahan ❑

Post Script: Talking and getting to know Otto and his wife, Maxine, as well as his cousin, Perry Wiseman, and his wife, Lee, was my pleasure. Lee did a wonderful pen and ink sketch of Wolf Pinnacle Fire Tower. She has agreed to share it with us.

A book could be written about this man and all that he has experienced. Otto has recorded his experiences and willingly shares them with others. He helps students learn world history vicariously, through his life's memories.

When I asked him how he wants to be remembered, he said simply, "I lived."

Otto would welcome sharing this rich and colorful life with others who are interested. You may contact him by phone or fax at (713) 443-6364 or E-mail him at tjd05@prodigy.com.

Carolyn Callahan

Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest Celebrates 50th Anniversary

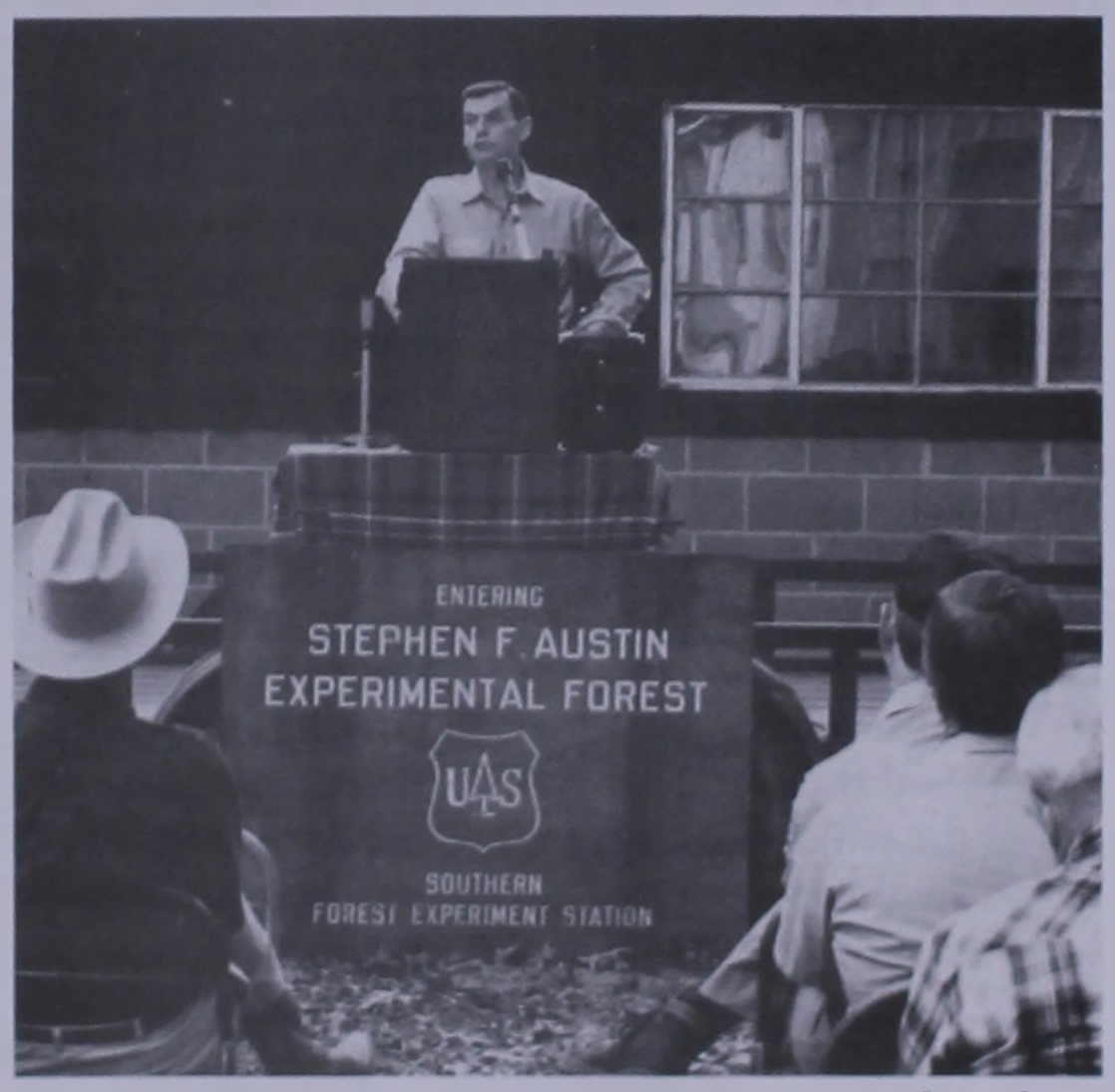
Myrna Johnson, Support Services Specialist, Forest Service, Nacogdoches, TX

The Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest celebrated its 50th anniversary on October 19, 1995—a beautiful fall day. More than 100 people attended the celebration at Experimental Forest Headquarters, which featured a wild-pig barbeque with all the goodies. The anniversary was a reunion of sorts with past and present staff and cooperators joining in the festivities. Featured speakers included Dr. Pete Roussopoulos, Director of the Southern Research Station, Dr. Richard Smythe, Director of Forest Environmental Research in the Washington Office, and Dr. Ron Thill, Project Leader at the Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest.

In the piney woods of East Texas, the Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest, located 10 miles south of Nacogdoches, Texas, was set aside by an act of Congress in 1945. The forest includes 2,500 acres within the Angelina National Forest. It was initially established to test and validate a wide array of forest management practices. It was designated as an experimental forest for the purpose of research and cooperation between the USDA Forest Service (Southern Forest Experiment Station, now Southern Research Station) and Stephen F. Austin State Teacher's College (now Stephen F. Austin State University) in Nacogdoches. Once part of two Spanish grants, the future experimental forest was later owned by the Blounts, a prominent East Texas family, who sold it to the Texas Rural Communities in 1934 to provide small farm units for relief applicants.

This program failed in 1939 and the land was taken over by the Farm Security Administration, which along with the National Youth Administration, both part of President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal, joined forces to establish a farm training program, which emphasized dairy farming for underprivileged young men. They set up a sawmill, erected buildings, cleared fields, and built fences. Many young men went through this program before it was abandoned in 1941, when America entered World War II. The tract was offered for sale in 1944.

Dr. Paul L. Boynton, President of Stephen F. Austin Teacher's College, proposed that the area be reserved for forest research. With the help of



Richard Connor

Dr. Pete Roussopoulos, Director of the Southern Research Station, addresses the audience attending the 50th Anniversary of the Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest

Lacy Hunt, H. Worth Whited, and other East Texas forestry leaders, Dr. Boynton, supported by of Texas Congressmen Thomas, Patton, Beckworth, and Poage, succeeded in having a bill introduced in Congress. This bill called for transfer of the tract to the Forest Service with the stipulation that the experimental forest be used for research in cooperation with the college—the only forest established by Congress with that stipulation. The bill was passed in December 1944.

An advisory committee, chaired by Worth Whited and composed of other East Texas forestry leaders, guided early research, which included: forest resource and landownership surveys; the effects of various cutting methods on sawtimber growth, pulpwood production, pine regeneration, pine seed production and seedling establishment; site preparation; control of unwanted vegetation by machines, chemicals, and prescribed burning; and the establishment of "farm forestry forty" to demonstrate economic benefits of selective thinning to small landowners. Research findings were published in numerous scientific journals and reports. Some of the early (1949) researchers were Hubert L. Person, Stuart F. Clark, Edward B. Williams, and Edwin A. Hebb. In the fifties, Thad Harrington, R.E. Lee III, John Stransky, Ed Ferguson, and Carter Gibbs were researchers.

In 1961, the research emphasis changed when the Nacogdoches unit was designated as the major research work unit for the Southern Forest Experiment Station's wildlife habitat research—a project headed by Lowell K. Halls. This research work unit was designated as the Wildlife Habitat and Silviculture Laboratory, and in 1972, a new building was dedicated on the Stephen F. Austin campus.

With the new wildlife emphasis, research now concerned the best methods to grow food and cover for white-tailed deer, gray and fox squirrels, eastern wild turkey, and bobwhite quail in loblolly-shortleaf pine-hardwood forests in the South. More recent research has concerned snag condition and woodpecker foraging, the effects of site preparation on the fruiting of woody plants, effects of clearcutting and site preparation on the herb-shrub community, artificial inoculation of red heart fungus into loblolly pines, effects of prescribed burning on fungi, effects of repeated burning and mowing on Japanese honeysuckle, potential woodpecker nest trees, site preparation's effects on soil density and pine seedling growth, and the effects of acid rain.

USDA Forest Service, Southern Research Station

Polystyrene "snag" used to evaluate woodpecker use of artificial snags for nest and roost cavities

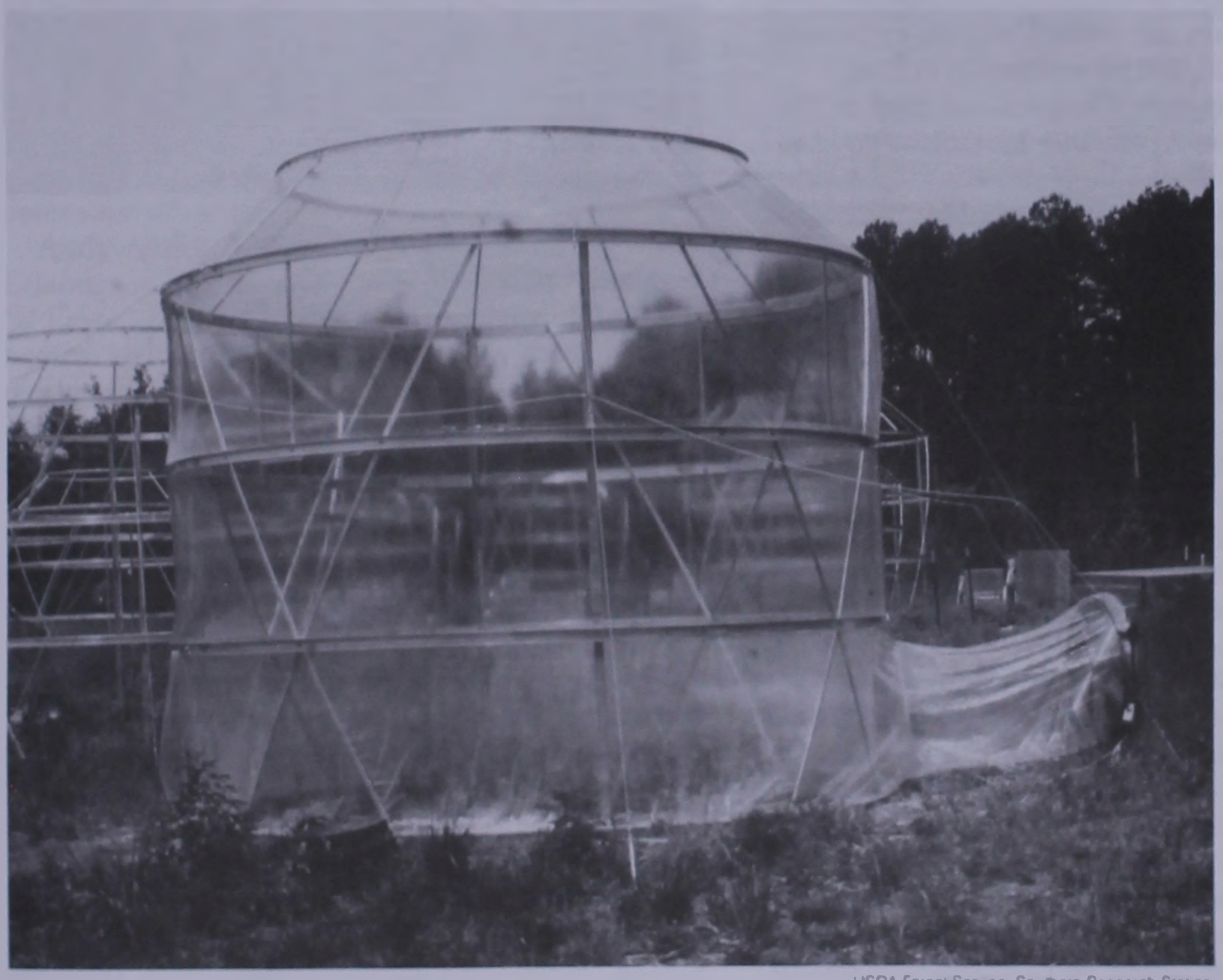
The East Texas Plant Materials Center, a cooperative effort of the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service, Southern Research Station, Area Conservation Districts, and Stephen F. Austin State University, is located on the experimental forest and is testing the suitability of different strains of plants for erosion control, wildlife and livestock forage, and mine reclamation.

In addition to cooperating with the College of Forestry and the Department of Biology at Stephen F. Austin State University, other cooperators (past and present) include Texas Parks and Wildlife (deer and squirrel studies), Texas Forest Service (pine genetics; burning), Texas A&M University (ozone and acid rain), U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (deer, squirrel, and rodent studies), Angelina Lumber Company (Kurth Tract, seed production), Texas Forest Pest Action Committee (forest pests), Vicksburg Research Center and

Natural Resources Conservation Service, Division of Soil Survey (prescribed burning), W.T. Carter Lumber Co. (brush plow—and site preparation), National Forests of Texas, and Dow Chemical Company (herbicides).

This fall, another project comes to fruition when a nature trail is dedicated at the experimental forest—a joint project conducted with Dr. Paul Risk of the College of Forestry, Stephen F. Austin State University, and Dr. Ronald E. Thill, project leader of the Forest Service's Wildlife Habitat and Silviculture Laboratory.

The 50th anniversary was celebrated in 1995. In the past half century, the focus of research has changed as the pines have added girth. Stephen F. Austin Experimental Forest today is still an active outdoor laboratory and will continue to be an important tool as Forest Service research moves into and faces the new challenges of the 21st century." ❑



Open top growth chamber to monitor pine seedling growth at Texas A&M Atmospheric Deposition (Ozone and Acid Rain) Site

USDA Forest Service, Southern Research Station

Ranger Vessel Chugach Returns to Service

Mark McCallum, Forest Archaeologist, Stikine Area,
Tongass National Forest

Ranger Vessel Chugach, stationed on the Tongass National Forest's Stikine Area in Alaska, returned to active duty two summers ago after a major rehabilitation. As reported in the spring 1993 *History Line*, Chugach was in need of major repair since being tied up at her oceanside dock in 1990. Because of her historical significance and demonstrated effectiveness as a ranger vessel, the Forest Service decided to rehabilitate Chugach. In fall 1993, Chugach underwent an 18-month, $600,000 rehabilitation at Port Townsend, Washington. Chugach returned to Petersburg, Alaska, in April 1995 looking as good as new!

Listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1992, becoming only the second vessel to be listed from Alaska, Chugach is the last commissioned Forest Service wooden ranger vessel in Alaska. The Chugach was built in 1925 to Forest Service specifications by Lake Union Dry Dock Company, a firm still in business in Seattle, Washington. Until 1953, Chugach operated out of Cordova, Alaska, then headquarters for the Chugach National Forest. In 1953, with the increase of timber harvest in Southeast Alaska, Chugach was transferred to the Tongass National Forest.

Ranger vessels served as floating offices and primary work stations for Forest Service personnel carrying out myriad tasks, such as administering timber sales, monitoring special use permits, transporting Civilian Conservation Corps crews to work camps, and taking rangers on regular inspection tours. Chugach, often the only Federal vessel on duty, performed frequent search and rescue missions and other public service. Her logs record

USDA Forest Service, Alaska Region

Ranger Vessel Chugach shortly after arriving at Port Townsend for 18-month rehabilitation

delivering mail; relighting lighthouses and navigation buoys; conducting the Federal census of 1950; delivering medical personnel and supplies; transporting U.S. troops during World War II; carrying law enforcement officers and judges; and supplying various scientific projects.

"Today we mark where we have been with this boat, to the men and women whose lives are as intertwined as with any member of their family." With that, Petersburg District Ranger Patty Grantham proclaimed the return of Chugach during a special ceremony. The ceremony was highlighted by the presence of many of the "historical characters" who have played a pivotal role in the vessel's colorful past.

About 60 people attended the rededication held during Petersburg's annual Little Norway Festival.

Among the invited dignitaries were former skippers, Harold "Andy" Anderson (skipper from 1949–1950), Spencer Israelson (skipper from 1950–1962) and Erling Husvik (skipper from 1962–1967). Ellen Blendheim and Nancy Lindholt, daughters of first skipper, Erland Jacobsen (skipper from 1926–1950), came to share stories about their father and their own journeys on board Chugach. Loraine "Toni" Harsh, daughter of 1920's Cordova Division Supervisor Harold Smith attended. Former regional forester Mike Barton, who was instrumental in ensuring a future for the 71-year-old vessel, also attended. New skipper, Bob Kinville, represented Chugach's future.

Each "historical character" shared a fond memory of life and work on board Chugach. Nancy Lindholt exclaimed, "It's my boat!" since it arrived in Cordova, Alaska, in the same year as her birth. Ellen Blendheim, bragging about her dad Erland, told the crowd, "Mom was boss at home, but Dad was boss on the boat." Toni Harsh talked about some of the many public uses of Chugach when it operated out of Cordova. "Every Christmas the boat was loaded with a bunch of teenagers and we brought trees back for the community. Things like that tied Chugach to the whole community."

Andy Anderson, who shared the helm with Erland, recalled several close calls with Chugach. "If Erland had not been an expert seaman, the boat would not be here today." Andy tends to be modest, but he also saved Chugach from certain disaster. Spencer Israelson told of an arduous journey in 1953 when Chugach left Cordova for the Tongass National Forest. The normal 3-day trip took him and his wife, Fran, 12 days due to a series of severe fall storms. An ocean-going tug spotted Chugach during the trip and was overheard on the marine radio saying, "What the heck is that little-bitty boat doing out here?"

After the stories, Bob Kinville raised a replica of the flag first used on Alaska ranger vessels in 1909.

USDA Forest Service, Alaska Region

Ranger Vessel Chugach returns to Petersburg, AK, in April 1995

The flag features a pyramidal white evergreen tree inside a white shield, similar to the traditional badge but without any lettering, and a circle of 13 white stars surrounding the shield. The flag's background color is dark navy blue. A green background was desired, but in the early days there was no green dye that would not fade in outdoor use.

Since her return, as the elder flagship of the Alaska ranger vessel fleet, Chugach has been booked solid on 10-day trips to remote islands with crews of foresters, biologists, wilderness rangers, and archaeologists. Ranger Grantham summed up Chugach's return by saying, "I hope it may be my good fortune to be standing on the dock with all of you in 30 years when we mark the Chugach's centennial." ❑

Southwestern Region Regional Office Sites through the Years

by David Gillio, Historian, Southwestern Region

With the next move of the Southwestern Region's Regional Office (RO) on the horizon, this seems a good time to see where the Southwestern Region RO has been.

Since 1908, when the Forest Service was reorganized with a Regional management scheme, the headquarters for the Southwestern Region has been located in Albuquerque, New Mexico. Over the years, office space has expanded to accommodate a staff many times larger than in the beginning. The location has also changed as the Regional Forester moved to larger quarters. Each move, however, was within just a few blocks of the starting point in the downtown area. These locations provided convenient access to the railroad, streetcars, and telegraph office.

The Southwestern Region RO has been in the Federal Building at 517 West Gold for 37 years. The Albuquerque City Directory[1] has listed locations of the RO annually since its 1909 edition. The following information comes mainly from that source. When first mentioned, the office was located on the second floor of the Luna-Strickler Building at 200 to 206 North Second Street. The Region was under the leadership of A.C. Ringland then and his office was colocated with the supervisor of the Manzano Forest (the forerunner of today's Cibola National Forest). Starting in 1913, the *name* of the address changed to the "Luna-Otero" Building, probably reflecting only a change of ownership. The official letterhead from Ringland's office used in June 1913 gave the address as "Luna-Otero Building, Albuquerque, N. Mex." Ringland stayed there through 1915.

The Albuquerque Museum, the Milner Collection, a Museum purchase with G.O. Bonds

The Luna-Stickler Building, circa 1916, located on the northeast corner of Copper and Second Street

In 1916, the RO was at 418 1/2 West Central Ave. When P.G. Redington became regional forester, he kept the office at that location throughout his tour of duty. He was replaced by F.C.W. Pooler in 1920. Pooler would be the longest serving Southwestern Regional Forester, staying on until after the end of World War II. He kept the office at the West Central address through 1930. This is the old Gas and Electric Co. building at the corner of West Central Ave. and 5th Street. Starting in 1916, RO letterhead included the address, "Gas and Electric Bldg, Albuquerque, N. Mex."

Sometime before 1932, Pooler moved over to the old Federal Building, and in 1932, the RO was again briefly colocated with the Manzano Forest

[1]The Albuquerque City Directories were first published as "Worley's Miscellaneous Directory," Dallas, Texas. Later editions were produced by the Hudspeth Directory Company of El Paso, Texas."

Supervisor. The foundations for the old Federal building had been laid back in 1908, just about the time the first Forest Service office was being set up in the Luna-Strickler Building. The RO stayed there, at 123 4th Street SW, through 1936 when its address was given as the Post Office Building at the corner of South 4th Street and West Gold Avenue. Again, as with the Luna-Otero building, the change seems to be in name only. Pooler worked at that location in second floor offices until his retirement in 1946.

The next Regional Forester was P.V. Woodhead. The RO stayed in the Post Office Building throughout his tenure. Otto Lindh replaced him in October 1949—for a year or two more. However, the RO was growing and, in 1947, the Lands Division had to move to 317-1/2 Gold Avenue for more space. In 1949, the Engineering Division found a home in the Tower Building at 510 North 2nd Street. In 1952, the Regional Forester moved the rest of the RO to the engineers' location.

Fred Kennedy became Regional Forester in 1955 and inherited the Tower Building space,

David Gillio

The Tower Building at the northeast corner of Second and Marquette

David Gillio

The Electric Company building at the southeast corner of Central (Railroad Avenue) and Fifth Streets

which he kept until 1959. By then, he could move the offices into the newly completed Federal Building at 517 Gold SW.

A few years after the Forest Service moved out of Luna-Strickler, the adjacent Corver Block was expanded, and the Luna-Strickler building apparently was torn down to make way for it. The Tower Building is still standing, but its external appearance is much altered. A screen of metal panels now covers the outside walls. The old Gas and Electric Co. building was renovated a few years ago and is also still in use. The upper floors are little changed on the outside, and the trademark electrical installation on its entablature, although not functional, is still in place.

The old Federal Building is still in operation, too, just a block from the present RO. It no longer has a front lawn, and the post office has moved to the Chavez Building, but until 1996 it looked very much as it did when Pooler worked there. As this is being written, there is construction work in progress that is giving the old Federal Building a face-lift.

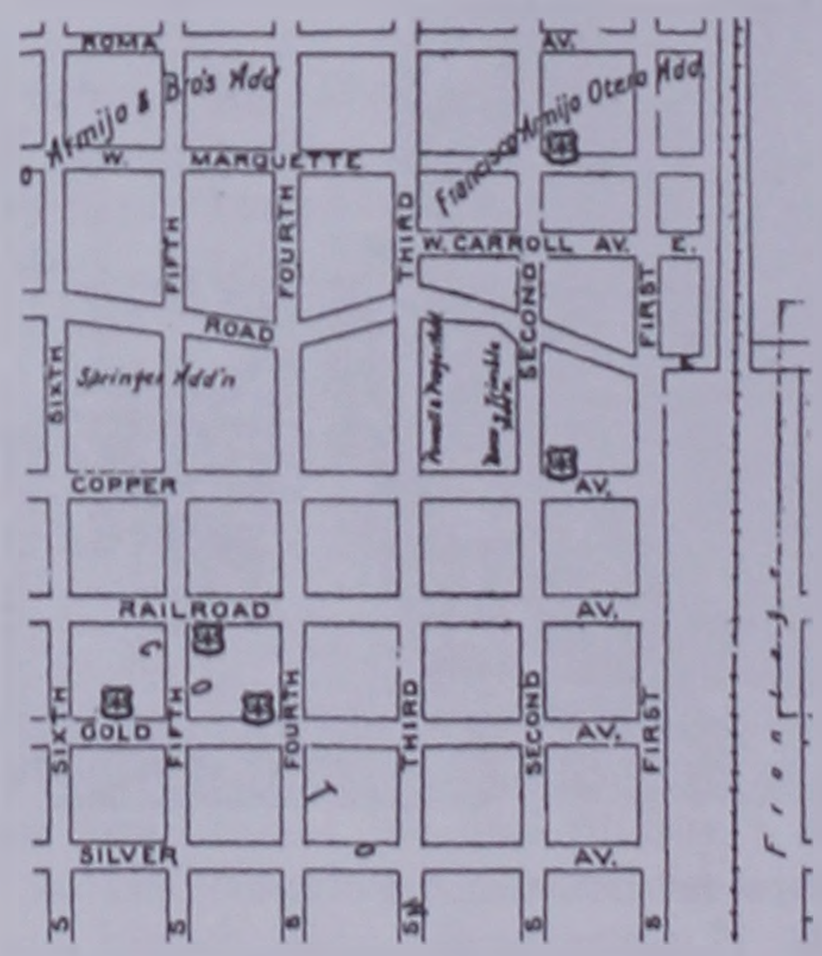
Structural problems in the 517 Gold Building will soon force another move. As much as 2 years of repair work will be conducted on the upper floors, so the RO will seek quieter quarters and

The Post Office/ Federal Building on the corner of Gold and Fourth Street

David Gillo

leave the building to the contractors. Many of the other Federal tenants have already left.

If the new home of the RO is not in the downtown area, this will be the end of a very long tradition. In 1909, Albuquerque was just a small town. The Regional Office was downtown at the start because of geography and economics. First, only a small core area in Albuquerque contained business offices. The downtown area offered the essential services of telegraph, mail, and transportation—the train depot was never more than a few minutes walk from the office. The trolley stopped in front of the office on West Central. Later, the location of three Federal office buildings on one corner served to concentrate Government services for public convenience. The growth of the city and the popularity of the automobile have largely cancelled out these considerations so the next home of the RO may be anywhere in the city. ❑



Map showing the relationship of locations of Southwest Regional Office

Downtown Albuquerque as shown in an 1893 Sanborn map. Central Avenue was called "Railroad" Avenue then but other street names have remained unchanged. Shields show the locations of office sites used since 1909 by the Regional Foresters.

Meetings, Conferences, and Symposia

Current Forest Service History Program Projects

The Washington Office (WO) recently began an effort to collect oral histories of all living WO Recreation Directors. In the first of several interviews, Jerry Williams traveled to Sarasota, Florida, in May to conduct an oral history of Dick Costley, who had served as Recreation Director in the WO from 1964–71. Mr. Costley was only the third Recreation Director (the first being Bob Marshall). The 10 hours of tape are currently being transcribed. Other oral histories are being contemplated.

Jerry Williams also finished two major projects in the last year:

1. Updated *Selected References Concerning the USDA Forest Service* in early 1995. Book is 343 pages with around 4,500 bibliographic references. Two printings of 200 copies each. The document is currently out of print.

2. In the spring of 1995, finished editing, with Steve Mark from National Park Service, a long-overdue book entitled *Establishing and Defending the Cascade Ranger Forest Reserve from 1885 to 1912: As Found in Letters, Newspapers, Magazines, and Official Reports*. 1,097 pages. Only 20 copies were printed. All copies are now given out.

Preparation for 1997 centennials of:

- The Organic Act of 1897—set policy for seven decades
- Establishment of 13 new forest reserves on February 22, 1897 (all suspended for 9 months except those in California)
- First forest rangers hired to patrol the forest reserves in 1898

National Forest Service Museum—Missoula

According to the July 1996 *National Forest Service Museum Newsletter (NFSM)* (for those of you who are not members), the *NFSM* worked with the Historical Museum at Fort Missoula to have a 12-month display of early Forest Service history. The exhibit closed recently.

The NFSM recently contracted with a Missoula company to prepare a preliminary site plan for the 36-acre site. The proposed museum site is on Forest Service property adjacent to the Missoula Airport. The completed plan will be used in making several grant requests, as well as serving as a guide to building a temporary museum building on the special use site.

Historical Research in Progress

The Pacific Northwest (PNW) Research Station has two historical studies underway and one possible study. Dr. Max G. Geier (Western Oregon State College) is involved in two reports—the first on scientific forestry research in Alaska. He has completed a manuscript entitled "Forest-Related Research and Scientific Research in Juneau, Fairbanks, and Anchorage." The manuscript is undergoing final review in the Portland headquarters. The PNW–GTR report was published in early 1997.

The second historical study that Associate Professor Geier is doing involves a book-length manuscript about the history of the H.J. Andrews Experimental Forest in Blue River, Oregon, on the Willamette National Forest. The project is expected to be completed before the 50th anniversary of "Andrews" in 1998.

A possible third historical study next year involves the closed Bend Lab and Pringle Falls Experimental Forest, both locations in Central Oregon. Cindy Minor, PNW Public Affairs, noted that the closing of these two locations offers an opportunity to collect information and oral histories from former employees at these sites, as well as information about the over management of the research program in the Pacific Northwest." ❑